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THE
BRITISH
COLONIAL LIBRARY,

COMPRISING
A POPULAR AND AUTHENTIC DESCRIPTION
OF ALL THE
COLONIES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE,

THEIR

History—Physical Geography—Geology—Climate—Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Kingdoms—Government—Finance—Military Defence—Commerce—Shipping—Monetary System—Religion—Population, white and coloured—Education and the Press—Emigration, Social State, &c.

BY

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.

IN TEN VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

LONDON :

HENRY G. BOHN, YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN.

MDCCCXLIV.



HISTORY, STATISTICS,

AND

GEOGRAPHY

OF

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA:

BY

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.



UPPER CANADA.

SECOND EDITION.

LONDON:

WHITTAKER & Co. AVE MARIA LANE.

MDCCCXXXVIII.



TO THE

KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

SIRE,

5697
IN placing before YOUR MAJESTY the present Edition of my Work on the Colonies, I avail myself of the opportunity to express my deep sense of gratitude for the patronage which YOUR MAJESTY was graciously pleased to bestow, in permitting me the distinguished honour of dedicating the first History of the British Colonies to the Sovereign of the greatest Colonial Empire in the World; and for the favour with which YOUR MAJESTY, and every branch of the Royal Family, have uniformly regarded efforts, which had for their sole object the promotion of the public good.

Conceiving, SIRE, that my duty towards YOUR MAJESTY may be most gratefully manifested by a

perseverance in my efforts to awaken the attention of the public to the importance of our Colonial Possessions, I have prepared the present Edition, with a view principally to the instruction of the rising generation, and also, to convey information to those whose attention to the Colonies would not be attracted by my preceding elaborate Statistical Work.

With truth may it be affirmed, SIRE, that the transmarine dominions of your *insular* Kingdom offer to the Agriculturist, measureless fields for pasture and tillage ;—to the Manufacturer, an incalculable extension of the home market for the disposal of his wares ;—to the Merchant and Mariner, vast marts for profitable traffic in every product with which Nature has bounteously enriched the Earth ;—to the Capitalist, an almost interminable extent for the profitable investment of his funds ;—and to the industrious, skilful, and intelligent Emigrant, an area of upwards two millions square miles, where every species of mental ingenuity, and manual labour may be developed and brought into action, with advantage to the whole family of man. England has no need to manufacture beet-root sugar (as France) —her West and East India possessions yield an

inexhaustible profusion of the cane ;—grain (whether wheat, barley, oats, maize or rice) every where abounds ;—her American, Asiatic and African possessions contain boundless supplies of timber, corn, coal, iron, copper, gold, hemp, wax, tar, tallow, &c. ;—the finest wools are the product of her South Asian regions ;—cotton, opium, silk, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, saltpetre, spices, spirits, wines and fruits, of every variety and to any extent, may be procured in the East and in the West, in the North and in the South of the Empire :—on the icy coast of Labrador as well as at the opposite Pole, her adventurous hunters and fishers pursue their gigantic game, almost within sight of their protecting flag ; and on every soil, and under every habitable clime, Britons desirous of change, or who cannot obtain occupation at home, may be found implanting, or extending the language, laws and liberties of their father land. In fine, SIRE, on this wondrous Empire the solar orb never sets,—while the hardy woodsman and heroic hunter, on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa, are shivering beneath a wintry solstice, the peaceful, but no less meritorious farmer and shepherd on the Kysna and Hawkesbury, are rejoicing over the golden grain and fleece of the Autumnal Southern clime ; and every breeze that

blows from the Arctic to the Antarctic circles is wafting over the unfathomable ocean myriads—

‘ Whose march is on the mountain wave,
Whose home is on the deep.’

That an Empire, SIRE, so extraordinary in its growth, and so exquisitely varied in its structure, is the result of blind chance, it would be impious to assert. Few will be found, with the hardihood of atheism, to deny that an overruling Providence guides the actions of men in their individual capacity; and it must be evident on the slightest reflection, that the same Power is exercised more apparently over man in his collective state,—over principalities, kingdoms, and empires. If, then, SIRE, it be our duty in private life not to neglect, much less spurn, the blessings provided by an allwise and ever-present Being, how much more imperative is it to attend to those social duties, which our peculiar situation, as citizens of an almost illimitable empire, require to be performed?

It is grievous, however, SIRE, to think how lamentably these duties have heretofore been neglected. Our Colonies, which, owing to their youth, and distance from the parent state, ought to have

excited and called into operation a larger share of maternal interest, have been sadly misused. The incalculable riches which, from the lap of abundance, they have ever offered to pour forth on the shores of Albion, have been fatuitously, in many instances, rejected; and the golden opportunity of binding with a silken chain of Commerce, the East, and the West, the North and the South of the Empire, too often sacrificed for the sake of private gain and the promotion of selfish interests. But, SIRE, it is to be hoped that the progress of knowledge—the extension of colonial commerce—and the light of the Gospel, with which the ministers of our religion are illumining every land, will awaken attention to the transmarine dominions of England; where the Statesman, guided by the precepts of Christianity, may fortify our empire for ages;—where the Merchant may in activity follow his peaceful and civilizing pursuits;—where the Naturalist may delight in scenes of exquisite and endless beauty, adorned with every variety of the animal and vegetable creation;—where the Philanthropist may exult in the progressive improvement of his fellow-creatures;—and above all, where the Christian may rejoice in the anticipation of

that prophesied kingdom, whose branches and roots are to extend throughout the universe.

In conclusion, SIRE, I beg to express an humble but fervent hope, that the Supreme Disposer of events may long spare YOUR MAJESTY to rule over our vast Empire, whose extent, wealth and power may, I trust, be made conducive to the happiness of our fellow creatures, of every creed, colour and clime,—and I have the distinguished honour and gratification to subscribe myself,

SIRE,

YOUR MAJESTY'S

dutiful subject,

ROBERT MONTGOMERY MARTIN ¹.

LONDON,
Jan. 1836.

¹ The Author gratefully acknowledges the marked and unvarying kindness which he received from His late Majesty ; and in common with the Nation, he will ever hold the memory of the good King in affectionate remembrance.— London, *Feb. 13, 1838.*

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THE
COLONIES
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF CANADA—ITS DISCOVERY, COLONIZATION BY THE
FRENCH, AND CAPTURE BY THE BRITISH, &c.

CANADA, so called from the Iroquois word *Kanata*, signifying a collection of huts, and which the early European discoverers mistook for the name of the country, embraces that portion of the American Continent which is bounded on the E. by the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the W. by the Pacific Ocean; on the N. by the Hudson Bay territory; and on the S. by the United States, and by a part of New Brunswick. It contains, so far as can yet be estimated, an area of 350,000 square miles, and is now divided into two Provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada,—the boundary lines of which will be seen on the map¹.

¹ In the large Edition of this Work the complex question of the boundaries of the British Possessions in N. America is fully discussed.

Several individuals claim the honour of having been the discoverers of this portion of the New World; but in a work, whose main object is to place before the British public a faithful though succinct view of the actual state of the Colonies, a brief description of the early events relating solely to the Canadian Coast, is all that will be requisite.

The celebrated Italian adventurers, John, and his sons Sebastian, Louis, and Sanchez Cabot, who received a commission on the 5th of March, 1495, from Henry VII. of England, to discover what Columbus was in search of—a North-west passage to the East Indies or China, or as the latter named country was then called, *Cathay*¹, claim the honour of being the first discoverers of Canada. The adventurers sailed in 1497 with six ships, and, early in June of the same year, discovered Newfoundland; whence continuing a westerly course, they reached the Continent of N. America, which the Cabots coasted (after exploring the Gulf of St. Lawrence) as far N. as 67.50. N. Lat. They returned to England in August, 1497; but although Sebastian subsequently performed three voyages to the New World, no settlement was effected on its shores. In 1500, Gaspar Cortereal, a Portuguese gentleman, visited the coast, and pursued the track of Sir John Cabot (who was knighted by our sovereign), but Cortereal and his brothers accomplished nothing

¹ We know nothing certain of the Spaniards having previously visited this part of America. The discovery of Columbus was in 1492, only five years previous to Cabot's voyage.

further than the kidnapping of several of the natives, whom they employed and sold as slaves. In 1502 Hugh Elliot and Thomas Ashurst, merchants of Bristol, with two other gentlemen, obtained a patent from Henry VII. to establish colonies in the countries lately discovered by Cabot; but the result of the permission granted is not known. In 1527 an expedition was fitted out by Henry VIII. by the advice of Robert Thorne, a merchant of Bristol, for the purpose of discovering a N. W. passage to the E. Indies, one of the ships attempting which was lost.

Francis the First of France, piqued at the discoveries of Spain and Portugal, and having his ambition roused by the monopolizing pretensions of these two powers to the possessions in the New World, authorized the fitting out of an expedition, the command of which he gave to Giovanni Verrazano, a Florentine, who, on his second voyage, discovered Florida, and thence sailing back along the American coast to the 50° of lat., took formal possession of the country for his royal master, and called it '*La Nouvelle France*.' On Verrazano's return to Europe, in 1525, without gold or silver, or valuable merchandise, he was at first coldly received, but, it is said, subsequently sent out with more particular instructions, and directions to open a communication with the natives; in endeavouring to fulfil which he lost his life in a fray with the Indians. This however is denied; and it is asserted, that the capture of Francis the First at the battle of Pavia in 1525, prevented him from further explor-

ing the coast, and that he returned to his native country, and died in obscurity. When the Government, however, ceased to follow up the result of Verrazano's formal acquisition of Canada, the Frenchmen of St. Maloes commenced a successful fishery at Newfoundland, which, so early as 1517, had 50 ships, belonging to the English, Spanish, French, and Portuguese, engaged in the cod fishery on its banks. Jacques Cartier, a native of St. Maloes, engaged in the Newfoundland fishery, took the lead in exploring, at his own risk, the N. coasts of the new hemisphere. This bold and experienced navigator at last received a commission from his sovereign, Francis the First, and left St. Maloes 20th April, 1534, with two vessels of 60 tons each; arrived at Newfoundland on the 10th May; remained there 10 days, and then sailed to the northward; passed through the straits of Belleisle, changed his course somewhat to the southward, traversed the great Gulf of St. Lawrence (already known to Europeans), and, on the 9th July arrived in the *Bay of Chaleurs*, which he so termed on account of its heat. On the 24th July, Cartier was at Gaspé, where he erected a cross, surmounted by a *fleur-de-lys*, and on the 25th July, sailed for France with two native Indians. The enterprising character of his royal master induced him to despatch Cartier in the following year with three larger vessels, and a number of young gentlemen as volunteers. The ships rendezvoused at Newfoundland, and in August sailed up the St. Lawrence, so called from its being discovered on the 10th day of that month, being the festival of the

Saint of that name. Cartier anchored off Quebec, then called Stadaconna, and the abode of an Indian chief, named Donnaconna. After leaving his ships secure, he pursued his route in the pinnace and two boats, until (on the 3rd October) he reached an island in the river, with a lofty mountain, which he named *Mont-Royal*, now called Montreal. After losing many of his followers from scurvy, during his wintering at Stadaconna, which he named St. Croix, Cartier returned to France in 1536, carrying off by force Donnaconna, two other chiefs, and eight natives. The French court finding that no gold or silver was to be had, paid no further attention to *La Nouvelle France*, or Canada, until the year 1540, when Cartier, after much exertion, succeeded in getting a royal expedition fitted out under the command of François de la Roque, Seigneur de Roberval, who was commissioned by Francis the First as Viceroy and Lieut.-General in Canada, Hochelaga (or Montreal), &c. Roberval despatched Cartier to form a settlement, which he did at St. Croix's Harbour on the 23rd August, 1541, but suddenly left it in the early part of the ensuing year. The Viceroy himself arrived in Canada in July, 1542, where he built a fort, and wintered, about four leagues above the isle of Orleans (first called the Isle of Bacchus); but for want of any settled plans, in consequence of the scurvy, and the insurrections and deadly hostility of the Indians, owing to Cartier's having in 1536 carried off the Indian Chief Donnaconna, and his attendants, (who had all perished in France,) little

was accomplished¹. Roberval's attention was called from Canada, to serve his sovereign in the struggle for power, so long waged with Charles V. of Spain; and Jacques Cartier, ruined in health and fortune, died in France soon after his arrival there. Roberval, on the death of Francis I., embarked again for Canada in 1549, with his gallant brother, Achille, and a numerous train of enterprising young men; but having never afterwards been heard of, they are supposed to have perished at sea.

In 1576, Martin Frobisher was sent out by Queen Elizabeth, with three ships on discovery, when Elizabeth's Foreland, and the straits which bear his own name, were discovered. Frobisher mistaking *mundic, mica* or *talc*, for gold ore, brought large quantities of it to England, and was despatched by some merchants, with three ships in the following year, to seek for gold, and to explore the coast of Labrador and Greenland, with the view of discovering a N. W. passage to India. He returned without any other success than 200 tons of the supposed gold ore, and an Indian man, woman, and child. In 1578, Martin Frobisher again sailed for the American continent, with no fewer than 15 ships, in search of gold, to the ruin of many adventurers, who received nothing but mica instead of gold ore; the

¹ The narrative of these proceedings must be received with due allowance, as there is considerable discrepancy in the different historians; the statements of Hakluyt are here generally followed.

fact, however, shows the speculative avidity of mercantile adventure at that period.

For 50 years France paid no attention to Canada, and the few settlers or their descendants left by Cartier or Roberval, were unheeded and unsuccoured; but in 1598 the taste for colonial adventure revived, and Henry IV. appointed the Marquis de la Roche his lieutenant-general in Canada, with power to partition discovered lands into seigniories and fiefs, to be held under feudal tenure, and as a compensation for military service when required. La Roche fitted out but one vessel, and unfortunately reinforced his crew with 40 malefactors from the prisons. It is sufficient here to state, that Sable island, a barren sand bank, and a rude part of Acadia (now called Nova Scotia), were first settled on, and afterwards abandoned; and that to private enterprise, rather than to royal decrees, the French nation were at last indebted for a permanent and profitable colonization in Canada. M. Pontgrave, a merchant of St. Malo, who had distinguished himself by making several profitable fur voyages to Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay river, engaged as an associate M. Chauvin, a naval officer, who obtained from Henry IV. in 1600, a commission, granting him an exclusive trade with Canada, and other privileges. Chauvin associated other persons with him in his enterprise, and made two successful trading voyages to Tadoussac, where the Indians gave the most valuable furs in exchange for mere trifles. Chauvin died in 1603, but commander De Chatte, or De Chaste, governor of Dieppe,

founded a company of merchants at Rouen, to carry on the fur trade on an extensive scale: an armament was equipped under Pontgrave and a distinguished naval officer named Samuel Champlain, who sailed up the St. Lawrence, as far as Sault St. Louis, in 1603. On the death of Chauvin, which happened in the ensuing year, Pierre Dugast, Sieur de Monts, a calvinist, and gentleman of the bed-chamber to Henry IV., received a patent, conferring on him the exclusive trade and government of the territory, situate between the 40° and 54° of lat.; and, although of the reformed religion, the Sieur was enjoined to convert the native Indians to the Roman Catholic tenets. De Monts continued the company founded by his predecessors, and fitted out an expedition in 1604 of four vessels, two of which were destined for Acadia, then an object of attraction. Suffice it to say, that trading posts were established at several places; the fur trade prosperously carried on; the Acadian colony neglected; and Quebec, the capital of the future New France, founded by Samuel Champlain on the 3rd July, 1608. The various Indian tribes contiguous to the new settlement, namely, the Algonquins, the Hurons, &c. who were at war with the Iroquois, or Five Nations, solicited and obtained the aid of the French; Champlain taught them the use of fire-arms, which the Iroquois also acquired from their English friends in the adjacent territory; and hence began the ruinous wars, which have ended in the nearly total extermination of the Indians of the North American Continent, wherever

they have come in contact with the Europeans and their descendants. But little success attended the first colonization on the banks of the St. Lawrence; in 1622, 14 years after its establishment, Quebec had not a population exceeding 50 souls¹. The mischievous policy of making religion (and that of the Jesuit caste) a part of the colonial policy, long hampered the French settlers; and to remedy the distressed condition of the colony, the commerce of Canada, heretofore vested in the hands of one or two individuals, was transferred in 1627, to a powerful association called the *Company of a hundred partners*, composed of clergy and laity, under the special management of the celebrated Cardinal Richelieu. The primary object of the Company was the conversion of the Indians to the Catholic faith, by means of zealous Jesuits; the secondary, an extension of the fur trade, of commerce generally, and the discovery of a route to the Pacific Ocean and to China, through the great rivers and lakes of New France.

This company held Canada, or New France, with the extensive privileges of a feudal seigniorship under the King, to whom were owing fealty and homage, and the presentation of a crown of gold at every new accession to the throne; with the right of soil, a monopoly of trade was granted, the King reserving for the benefit of all his subjects, only the cod and whale fisheries in the gulf and coasts of St. Law-

¹ The first child born in Quebec of French parents was the son of Abraham Martin and Margaret L'Anglois; it was christened Eustache on the 24th October, 1621.

rence ; and to such colonists as might not be servants of the company, was secured the right of trading with the Indians for *peltries* (skins), it being understood that, on pain of confiscation, they should bring all their beaver skins to the factors of the company, who were bound to purchase them at 40 sous a piece. Under the new system, "Protestants and other Heretics," as well as Jews, were entirely excluded from the colony, and a Jesuit corps was to be supported by the Company. Thus monopoly and bigotry went hand-in-hand, and no auspicious Providence attended the efforts of such a selfish and fanatic project.

The very first vessels despatched by the new religio-commercial-company for Quebec, were captured by the English. In 1628 a squadron of English vessels, under the command of Sir David Kertk, a French refugee, visited Tadoussac, and destroyed the houses and cattle about Cape Tourmente ; Kertk and his little band next proceeded to Gaspé bay, where he met M. De Roquemont, one of the hundred partners, commanding a squadron of vessels, freighted with emigrant families, and all kinds of provisions : Roquemont was provoked to a battle, and lost the whole of his fleet, provisions, &c. ; and the last hope of the colony of Quebec was blasted by the shipwreck of two Jesuit missionaries, on the coast of Nova Scotia, in a vessel laden with provisions for the starving colonists, who were now reduced to an allowance of five oz. of bread per day. Kertk, reinforced by some more English vessels, commanded by his two brothers, sent them up the

St. Lawrence, when they easily captured Quebec, on the 20th July, 1629: and, on the 20th October, Champlain arrived at Plymouth, on his return to France, most of his countrymen having however remained in Canada. While Quebec was being captured by Kertk and his English squadron, peace was under ratification between England and France; and in 1632, (the latter power having previously opened a negotiation with England,) Quebec, Acadia (Nova Scotia), and Isle Royal (Cape Breton), were ceded to France, and Champlain resumed the government of Canada. The Jesuits, with their accustomed zeal, commenced anew their efforts; and from this period to the final British conquest in 1760, a rivalry and growing hostility, partly religious and partly commercial, took place between the French and English settlers in North America, which were evinced by mutual aggressions, while profound peace existed between their respective sovereigns in Europe.

In 1644 Montreal was ceded to the religious order of Sulpicians of Paris, whose property it became; and the gradual breaking down of the monopoly of the 100 partners, encouraged the spread of colonization and an attention to agriculture, instead of an exclusive consideration for the precarious traffic in furs. In 1663 the proceedings of the company became so obnoxious, that the King of France decided upon the immediate resumption of his rights, and the erecting of Canada into a royal government: Monsieur de Mesy was appointed governor, and proceeded from France to Quebec with 400 regular troops, and 100

families as settlers, with cattle, horses, and implements of agriculture.

Under the Royal jurisdiction, the Governor, a King's Commissioner, an Apostolical Vicar, and four other Gentlemen, were formed into a Sovereign Council, to whom were confided the powers of cognizance in all causes, civil and criminal, to judge in the last resort according to the laws and ordinances of France, and the practice of the Parliament of Paris, reserving the general legislative powers of the Crown, to be applied according to circumstances. This Council was further invested with the regulation of commerce, the expenditure of the public monies, and the establishment of inferior Courts at Three Rivers and Montreal.

This change of Canada, from an ecclesiastical mission to a secular government, was owing to the great Colbert, who was animated by the example of Great Britain, to improve the navigation and commerce of his country by colonial establishments. The enlightened policy of this renowned financial Minister of Louis XIV. was followed by the success which it deserved. To a regulated civil government was added increased military protection against the Iroquois Indians ; the emigration of French settlers to New France was promoted by every possible means ; and a martial spirit was imparted to the population, by the location in the colony of the disbanded soldiers of the Carignan regiment (consisting of 1000 foot), and other troops, whose officers became the principal seigneurs of the colony, on condition of

making cessions of land under the feudal tenure, as it still exists, to the soldiers and other inhabitants. The ambitious projects of Louis XIV. require no comment. They were not confined to Europe, but embraced every part of the globe, wherever the wily monarch or politic Colbert thought it practicable for Frenchmen to find a footing. With this view, the French West India Company was re-modelled, and Canada added to their possessions, subordinate to the crown of France, with powers controlled by His Majesty's Governors and Intendants in the different Colonies. The royal edict, conferring civil and military powers on the West India Company, similar to those granted to our East India Company, after stating the motives of the sovereign, thus proceeds :—

‘ We hereby establish a West India Company, to be composed of persons already interested in the Continent of America, and others of our subjects who may wish to become stockholders, for the purpose of carrying on the commerce of that country, from the river Amazon to the Oronoco ; likewise the islands Antilles (possessed by Frenchmen), Canada, L’Acadie, both continent and islands, from the North of Canada to Virginia and Florida ; also the coast of Africa, from Cape Verd to the Cape of Good Hope, so far as the said Company may be able to penetrate, whether the said countries may now appertain to us, as being, or having been, occupied by Frenchmen, or in so far as the said Company shall establish itself by exterminating or conquering the natives or colonists of such European nations as are not our allies.’

The following curious particulars show more clearly the object and intentions of the founders of this once celebrated Company :—

1. 'The Company is bound to carry out a sufficient number of priests, and to build churches and houses for their accommodation, and for the performance of their holy functions. 2. An interest in the Company should not derogate from the privileges of the nobility of the kingdom. 3. The stock or shares were made transferable, and the revenue or profits of them alone could be attached for debts owing by the holders, *even to the King himself*. 4. The Company was to enjoy a monopoly of the territories and the trade of the colonies thus conceded for 40 years: it was not only to enjoy the exclusive navigation, but his Majesty conferred a bounty of 30 livres on every ton of goods exported to France; and such imported colonial merchandise as had paid the custom and other duties on consumption, could be re-exported by the Company, without any charge of export duty. 5. The Company was not only endowed as seigneur with all the unconceded lands, but invested with the right of extinguishing the titles of seigniories granted or sold by previous companies, on condition of reimbursing the grantees and purchasers for their costs and improvements. 6. The King assumed all claims of previous companies established in the colonies by himself or his predecessors; and the new Company was invested with all the seigniorial rights and dues already borne by the inhabitants as seigniorial vassals, with power to *commute or modify* them, as well as to make new grants or sales. 7. The Company was to have a right to all mines and minerals, the power of levying and recruiting soldiers within the kingdom, manufacturing arms and ammunition for the defence of their possessions, building forts, and even declaring and carrying on war by sea and land against the native Indians or neighbouring foreign colonies, in case of insult. 8. To add to the splendour of the Company, a coat of arms was also granted; but it was ordered that when those arms should be affixed to warlike instruments and equipments, they should be surmounted by the royal arms of France. 9. The administration of justice was to be according to the laws and ordinances of the kingdom and the custom of Paris, and no other custom was to be introduced into the colonies. 10. To encourage emigration, as well as to gratify the present in-

habitants, all colonists and converts professing the Romish faith, were declared capable of enjoying the same rights in France and in the Colonies as if they had been born and resided within the kingdom. 11. Lastly, in this munificent edict, his Majesty agrees to advance one-tenth of the whole stock, without interest, for four years, subject to a proportion of all losses which might be incurred during that period by the Company.'

As might have been expected, the proceedings of this Company soon excited general murmurs in Canada; and, in two years, namely on the 8th April, 1666, the Royal Arrêt of the Council of State granted to the Canadians (as the French colonists are termed), the trade in furs, subject to an allowance of one-fourth of all beaver skins, and one-tenth of all buffalo skins, and the total reservation to the Company of the trade of Tadoussac, situate about 75 miles below Quebec, at the mouth of the Saguenay river. This arrangement, although intended to diminish the temptation to smuggling, which exclusive privileges and high duties engender, failed to produce the expected result; and the records of the colony present the usual routine of contraband artifices for evading the payment of heavy duties on merchandise. War was continued to be waged by the French colonists against the Iroquois, or Mohawk Indians (who were in alliance with the English colonists, then occupying the territories around New York); and a French army, consisting of 28 companies of regular troops, and the whole militia of the colony, marched 700 miles from Quebec into the Mohawk territory, during the depth of winter, for the purpose of utterly extirpating the Indians,

who, however, retired, leaving only a few women, children, and *sachems* (old men), who were mercilessly slain by the disappointed Frenchmen. For purposes of military defence, forts were constructed at the mouths of the river Sorel and Chambly; and, by a royal edict, the Canadians were directed to concentrate their settlements, no lands being permitted to be cleared or cultivated but such as were contiguous to each other¹. This circumstance accounts for the peculiar military style of the French Canadian townships, and is one of the causes of the S. E. frontier having been nearly deserted, and exposed to the territorial pretensions of the United States.

Unhappily for the colonists, the Governor General (then more than 70 years of age) confirmed, in 1667, to the West India Company within Canada, the same rights, privileges, and authorities, as had been enjoyed by the unfortunate company of 100 partners before mentioned; but Monsieur De Talon, the Intendant, a man of different views, soon perceived that it was the natural interest of the Company to discourage colonization. He represented to the minister Colbert the absolute necessity of the total

¹ There was good cause for this edict, by reason of the retaliation of the Iroquois for the murder of their wives and children, and the transportation of their warriors in chains to the galleys in France, whenever the French colonists could come upon their villages by surprise. The Marquis de Tracy made one incursion into an Iroquois settlement. The Indians saved themselves by flight; but a few old men, women, and children, were slaughtered by the French, and the massacre was celebrated by a *Te Deum*, in the cathedral of Quebec, by order of the Governor General!

resumption of the rights of the crown; drew his attention to the means of obtaining abundance of warlike instruments and naval stores within the colony, pointed out the iron mines of St. Maurice, the oak and pine masts on the borders of the St. Lawrence for ship building, the capabilities of the soil for growing abundance of hemp, &c. and, in fact, at last prevailed; so that in 1674, the King of France resumed his rights to all the territories conceded to the West India Company, assumed their debts and the current value of their stock, and appointed a Governor, Council, and Judges, for the direction of the Canadian colonies.

A minute detail of local occurrences would be out of place in a work of this nature¹; it may be sufficient to say, that from this period (1674), when the population, embracing converted Indians, did not exceed 8,000, the French settlement in Canada continued to increase, and as it rose in power, and assumed offensive operations on the New England frontier, the jealousy of the British Colonists became roused, and both parties, aided alternately by the Indians, carried on a destructive and harassing border warfare. And here it may not be amiss to observe, how much the progress of the British colonists in New York, New England, &c. and the pros-

¹ In 1682, the Mississippi (which the Canadian Indians had previously discovered to the French) was descended to the sea by M. de la Sales, and all the country watered by that mighty river taken nominal possession of in the name of Louis XIV., in honour of whom it was called *Louisiana*.

perity of the French in Canada, were influenced during successive years by the strength and moral character of their respective sovereigns. I may allude, for instance, to the licentious reign of Louis XV., and the vigorous administration of William III., during whose governments the progress of their respective colonies was retarded or advanced by the example or stimulus afforded by the mother country; thus demonstrating how much under a monarchy, the character and happiness of nations are influenced by the principles and habits of their rulers.

For many years the French in Canada made head against the assaults of their less skilful, but more persevering neighbours, owing to the active co-operation and support which the Canadians received from their Indian allies, whom the British were by nature less adapted for conciliating; but at length the latter, seeing the necessity of native co-operation, conciliated the favour of the aborigines, and turned the tide of success in their own favour. The hostilities waged by the Indians were dreadful. Setting little value on life, they fought with desperation, and gave no quarter; protected by the natural fastnesses of their country, they chose in security their own time for action, and when they had enclosed their enemies in a defile, or amidst the intricacies of the forest, the war whoop of the victor and the death shriek of the vanquished were almost simultaneously heard; and while the bodies of the slain served for food¹ to the savage, the scalped head of

¹ According to the French historians of the day.

the white man was a trophy of glory, and a booty of no inconsiderable value to its possessor¹. The Canadians themselves sometimes experienced the remorseless fury of their Indian forces. On the 26th of July, 1688, Le Rat, a chief of the Huron tribe, mortified by the attempt of the French commanders to negotiate a peace with the Iroquois or Five Nations, without consulting the wishes of their Huron allies, urged his countrymen, and even stimulated the Iroquois, to aid him in an attack on Montreal. The colonists were taken by surprise, a thousand of them slain, and the houses, crops, and cattle on the island destroyed. Charlevoix, in his history of *La Nouvelle France*, says of the Indians, " Ils ouvrirent le sein des femmes enceintes pour en arracher le fruit qu' elles portoient, ils mirent des enfans tout vivant a la broche, et contraignirent les mères de les tourner pour les faire rôtir !" The French, reinforced from Europe, sent a strong force in February, 1690, who massacred the greater part of the unresisting inhabitants of Shenectaday. According to Colden, p. 78, the Indians whom the French took prisoners in the battle at Shenectaday, were *cut into pieces and boiled to make soups for the Indian allies who accompanied the French!* Such were the desolating effects of European colonization on the continent of America, equalling, in fact, as regards the destruction of human life, the miseries

¹ For every human scalp delivered into the Canadian War Department, a sum of 40 livres was paid; to our credit be it said, such barbarism was not pursued by the New England Colonies.

inflicted by the Spaniards on the more peaceful and feeble Indians of the West India islands.

The massacre of the Indians at Shenectaday by the French, had the effect of inducing the Iroquois and other nations to become more closely attached to the English; and the French were compelled to act on the defensive, and keep within their own territory. Our countrymen at Albany were at first so much alarmed at the determined hostility of the French, that they prepared to abandon the territory; but, at this crisis, the New England colonies came to an understanding, and formed a coalition for their mutual defence. Commissioners were sent to New York, and a mission despatched to London, explaining their views, and soliciting aid towards the successful completion of the naval and military expedition which was planned against the French settlements in Canada, in 1690.

What a signal change had taken place in the views and relative position of the parties, when, but a few years after, those very colonists sent to France—whose dominion in Canada they had been the chief instruments in annihilating—for succour and support in their war of independence against Great Britain!

The plan of attack on Canada by the New England colonists, which they fitted out at an expense of £150,000 (a heavy one to them at that period), was twofold—1st, by land and inland navigation on the southern frontier of the French; and, 2nd, by a fleet, under Sir W. Phipps, with a small army on board, which was sent round by sea from Boston to attack Quebec. The force of the English

was undisciplined; it consisted of colonists who were stimulated by deadly resentment to avenge the murder of their numerous relatives and friends, who had been slain by the French and their Indian allies. Quebec was formally summoned by Sir W. Phipps to surrender, and bravely defended by the Sieur de Frontenac, who compelled his foes to return to Boston with considerable loss in ships and men, owing to the delay and bad management of the commander, who, had he persevered in his efforts, would undoubtedly have starved out the garrison. The attack on Quebec by land had, without waiting for co-operating with the fleet, previously failed; so that the French were thus enabled to meet and defeat their enemies in detail, a policy which a good general, when assailed by superior numbers, will usually adopt.

The French, feeling secure in their dominions, pushed forward their out-posts with vigour by means of the fur-traders¹, and more than ever alarmed

¹ The fur trade, which so long excited the cupidity and hostility of the English and French in their early intercourse with the American continent, is thus described by the intelligent writer of a pamphlet printed and published in Canada, in 1828, relating to the political annals of the colony.—It consisted of two parts: 1st. The trade carried on at the great annual fairs in the cities, particularly in Montreal, where the Indians themselves brought their furs to market. This local trade was open to all the colonists, subject to a contribution of one fourth of the beaver, and one tenth of the buffalo skins, to the French King, which right his Majesty farmed out to certain patentees, or *farmers general*. These farmers general, by an abuse common in French finances, contrived to purchase most of the furs, but more particularly the beaver and buffalo, from the merchants, blending

the contiguous English colonists, who now became daily convinced of the impossibility of both nations

together into one transaction the receipt of the contribution, and the purchase of the remainder; and this species of monopoly continued till the year 1701, when the merchants obtained a royal edict for the establishment of a company, to consist of all persons willing to become associates, for shares of 50 livres each. Holders of 20 shares were entitled to deliberate in all meetings, and might be chosen Directors of the Company. The whole of the beaver trade, and the claims of the Crown upon it, were granted for the consideration of an annual contribution to the Colonial Treasury of 60,000 livres. With the combined views of checking the contraband trade to New York, and encouraging the exertions of the inland traders, a liberal minimum price *in money* was fixed by this edict for beaver skins, distinguished into three qualities, averaging 2 livres 13 sous, or about 2s. 3d. sterling per pound. 2nd. The second part of this trade extended to the distant posts and places, whence the Indians could not be expected to bring their furs to the Montreal fair. Licenses were granted to carry on this trade, as a royal bounty to old officers, or to the poor gentry of the colony, which they sold to the inland traders. The extent of trade allowed to each license was merchandise to the amount of *one thousand crowns*, to carry which, and to convey the returns, the purchaser of the license was bound to employ two canoes, with crews of six men in each. The seller of the license had also the right of furnishing merchandise suitable for this trade, to the amount before mentioned, at an advance of 15 *per cent.* upon the market price, making, with the annual price of the license, namely, *six hundred crowns*, a handsome income, in those times of comparative economy. A successful adventure, under such a license, generally gave to the merchant a profit of 400 per cent. on the merchandise, and 600 crowns to each of the canoe-men. But an essential part of this regulated trade should be more particularly alluded to: the canoe-men were not only entitled to provisions and clothing, but interested in the result of the adventure, by having a legal right to divide the surplus of the returns, after the

remaining as rivals on the same continent ; the French seeking dominion by military power and conquest—the English by an extension of the arts of peace, aided by a liberal spirit. The latter, therefore, resolved on using every possible means for the total expulsion of their Gallic neighbours from Canada, who refused the offer made to them to remain pacific while the mother countries were at war. The main object of Frontenac was to take possession of every point calculated to extend the dominion of France ; to cut off the English from

cost of license, merchandise, and 400 per cent. profit to the merchant, had been reimbursed. Those privileges excited a spirit of enterprise among the young colonists ; and almost every father of a family looked to the inland fur trade as a means of regular employment to part of his children. This employment had also peculiar attractions ; and the canoe-man, though originally intending merely to obtain a little money to be employed in clearing and stocking a farm, frequently dissipated his share of the returns, and undertook another voyage. In this manner, the avails of the fur trade were not so subservient to colonization as the King expected ; but they must have contributed something towards the improvement of the country ; and, in a political point of view, the effects of this trade upon the colonial population were important, in breeding up a class of men familiarised with the dangers and privations of a long inland navigation, and fitting them to co-operate with the Indian allies of France in harassing the British colonies. The brilliant accounts given by the canoe-men of the scenes which they had visited, combined with the military spirit diffused among the settlers by the disbanded soldiers, rendered the Canadian militia ambitious to accompany the regular forces in desultory warfare ; and, for many years before the conquest, it was the common boast of a Canadian, that he had been employed in an expedition against the English on the Belle Rivière or Ohio.

the fur trade ; and, finally, to hem them in between the Highlands of Nova Scotia and the Alleghany Mountains. He began by checking the incursions of the Iroquois, whom he weakened so much by destructive warfare, and hemmed so closely in by a judicious distribution of military stations or forts, as to prevent them ever after from making an impression on Canada, such as they had been wont to produce. Frontenac's next step was the preparation, in 1697, of a large armament to co-operate with a strong force from France, which was destined for the conquest of New York ; but while the brave and active Canadian Governor was preparing to take the field, the news arrived of the treaty of peace between France and England, concluded at Ryswick, 11th Sept. 1697, much to the dissatisfaction of Frontenac, who died in the following year.

The renewal of the war between Great Britain and France in May, 1702, soon led to acrimony and hostility in America ; and the cruel persecutions of the Protestants in France caused a religious animosity to be superadded to the hatred entertained by the New Englanders towards their neighbours, whose numbers had now increased to about 15,000. In 1708 the Marquis de Vaudreuil carried his operations into the British frontier settlements, having previously negotiated for the neutrality of the Iroquois, who were flattered by being treated as an independent power ; but the destruction of the village of Haverhill, and the massacre of some of its inhabitants, compelled the Canadians again to assume a defensive position. The New Englanders made every preparation for an attack on Montreal by land ; but the English forces

destined for the co-operation by the St. Lawrence river were required for Portugal, and thus the Marquis de Vaudreuil had time to make better preparations for defence. The ensuing year (1709) was spent by the English in reducing Acadia, now Nova Scotia; and when the combined land and sea expedition against Canada took place in 1711, it was so ill-managed, and the British fleet, owing to tempestuous weather and ignorance of the coast, met with so many disasters, losing by shipwreck in one day (the 22nd of August), 8 transports, 884 officers, soldiers, and seamen, that the expedition returned to Boston, and the restoration of peace between France and England by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, left the former yet a little longer to harass and molest the British colonists along the Canadian frontier¹. The Marquis de Vaudreuil availed himself of the peace to strengthen the fortifications of Quebec and Montreal; the training of the military, amounting to 5,000 in a population of 25,000², was carefully attended to—barracks were constructed—and a direct assessment levied on the inhabitants for the support of the troops and the erection of fortifications. During ten years of foreign and internal tranquillity, the trade and property of Canada made rapid progress: in 1723, 19 vessels cleared from Quebec, laden with peltries, lumber, stones, tar, tobacco, flour, pease, pork, &c.;

¹ So impregnable was Quebec then considered, that the Whigs of that day made its attempted capture one of the articles of impeachment against Harley, Earl of Oxford.

² Quebec in 1720 had a population of 7,000, and Montreal of 3,000.

and six merchant ships and two men-of-war were built in the colony.

The death of the Marquis de Vaudreuil in October, 1725, was deservedly lamented by the Canadians. He was succeeded in 1726 by the Marquis de Beauharnois, (a natural son of Louis XIV.) whose ambitious administration excited yet more the alarm and jealousy of the English colonists of New York and New England, while the intrigues of the Jesuits with the Indians, contributed not a little to bring about the final struggle for dominion on the American Continent, between the two most powerful nations of Europe. The war between Great Britain and France in 1745, led to the reduction in that year of Cape Breton, by a British naval and military force, combined with the provincial troops of the New England Colonies; but the successful battle of Fontenoy roused the martial spirit of the Canadians to attempt the re-conquest of Nova Scotia in 1746 and 1747, in which they failed, and the treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle in 1748 suspended further hostilities. Commissioners were then appointed to settle a boundary line between the British and French territories in North America. The object of the French was to confine the English within the boundary of the Alleghany mountains, and prevent their approach to the Lakes, the St. Lawrence¹, the Mississippi, (where the former were now establishing themselves,) and their tributary streams. The Canadian Government, without any authority from home, and accompanied by a dis-

¹ How much more statesmanlike than the policy of England with regard to the United States Boundary.

play of military pomp, calculated to impress on the minds of the Indians the idea that France would assert her territorial right to the limits marked, proceeded to survey the projected line of demarcation between the possessions of France and those which the Canadian Governor was pleased, *in his liberality*, to assign to England: leaden plates, bearing the royal arms of France, were sunk at proper distances, and the whole ceremony was concluded with much formality. Such an imprudent step, it may be imagined, seriously alarmed the Indians, as well as the English, and terminated in their active co-operation for the utter expulsion of the French from North America.

In pursuance of the line of policy marked out by the French counsels at home and in Canada, the Jesuits were employed to intrigue with the Acadians or descendants of the early French inhabitants, with the view of prevailing on them to quit Nova Scotia, and resort to a military post now established beyond its frontier, on the Canada side, where a new colony was to be formed, in aid of which the royal sanction was granted for an appropriation of 800,000 livres. Cornwallis, the Governor of Nova Scotia, soon convinced the French that he was aware of their proceedings; he caused a fort to be erected opposite the French, near the Bay of Fundy, on the side of the river Beaubassin; placed it under the command of Major Laurence, and caused to be captured at the mouth of the St. John river, a vessel laden with supplies for the French. While these measures were in progress, the French commenced enforcing their

power along the line of demarcation they had marked out ; three individuals who had licenses to trade from their respective English Governors with the Indians on the Ohio were seized by the French, and carried prisoners to Montreal, whence after severe treatment and strict examination, they were at length liberated, with injunctions not to trespass *on the French territories*.

The intrigues of the Jesuits with the Iroquois to detach them from the English, were so far successful that the Indians permitted the French to erect the fort La Presentation near their border ; and, but for the perseverance and extraordinary influence of Sir William Johnston, the wily character of the Canadians would have gone far to frustrate the confederacy forming between the English and Indians for the expulsion of the French ; whose downfall was ultimately occasioned by the corruption that prevailed within the colony, and the scandalous jobs that the very highest authorities not only winked at but profited by. The arrival of the Marquis du Quesne de Menneville, in 1752, as Governor of Canada, Louisiana, Cape Breton, St. John's, and their dependencies, gave indications that hostilities might soon be expected in Europe ; and the activity of the Marquis was displayed¹ in training and organizing the militia for internal defence ; detachments of regulars,

¹ In this year a 74 gun ship was built for the government in Canada, but owing to some mismanagement she was *hogged* in launching near Cape Diamond. Two cargoes of Canadian wheat were shipped at the same period for Marseilles ; the arrival of which was very justly hailed with great satisfaction in France.

militia, and Indians, were despatched to the Ohio ; fort Du Quesne (actually within the Virginian territory) and other posts were erected, with a view of keeping the English within the Apalachian or Alleghany Mountains ; and from Ticonderago, Crown Point, and Fort Niagara, the most ferocious attacks were made on the peaceable English settlers¹, notwithstanding the treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle in 1748. The British, though still acting on the defensive, were not idle ; a fort was built in the vicinity of Du Quesne, quaintly termed *Necessity*, and a garrison was despatched from Virginia, under the command of George Washington, whose name has since become so illustrious, and who then held a Lieutenant-Colonel's commission. Washington on his march to assume the command of Fort *Necessity*, was met by a reconnoitring party from Du Quesne fort, under M. de Jumonville, who peremptorily forbade the English to proceed further. The mandate was answered by a burst of indignation, and a volley of musquetry, which killed Jumonville, and several of his men. The French commandant at Du Quesne, Monsieur Contrecoeur, quickly commenced offensive hostilities ; invested fort *Necessity*, and obliged Wash-

¹ It was at this period that the remarkable convention of the British colonists (then vulnerable, owing to their separate local governments) was held at Albany in July 1754, when Benjamin Franklin produced a plan for the union of the States, establishing a quota, and levying men and money, throughout the different Colonies to resist the French ; indeed, though not then acted on, this document was the basis of the federal union subsequently formed for the overthrow of the British dominion.

ington to capitulate. England at that time was preparing for an open war with France, which the ambition of Frederick of Prussia and the state of Europe soon rendered general. A strong fleet, with troops and warlike munition, was despatched to reinforce Quebec; an English fleet pursued it, but succeeded in capturing only two frigates, with the engineers and troops on board, on the banks of Newfoundland.

In 1755, the Marquis Du Quesne having resigned, he was succeeded, in July, by the last French governor in Canada, the Marquis de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal, whose administration was auspiciously opened by the defeat of the brave but rash General Braddock, on the 9th July, 1755, in one of the defiles of the Alleghany Mountains. Braddock, accustomed to European, rather than to Indian warfare, neglected every precaution of scouts and advance posts; and refused to make any preparations against the French and their Indian allies, who, when the enemy had entered a gorge, where retreat was almost impossible, poured from their ambuscades on the devoted British a deadly fire, under which the soldiers of the unfortunate Braddock fell rapidly, without even the satisfaction of seeing or meeting their foes. The death of their leader was the signal that further advance was hopeless; and to the credit of George Washington, the second in command, he succeeded in rescuing the remainder of the British army, who were afterwards joined by 6,000 provincial troops, under General Johnston and Governor Shirley. Johnston, with the intention of investing Crown Point, joined General Lyman near Lake George,

where they were attacked by 3,000 French, commanded by the Baron Deiskau. After a battle of four hours' duration, the French retreated to Crown Point, with a loss of 1,000 men, and the capture of their leader, who was severely wounded. This success restored the drooping spirits of the British army, and helped to train the provincials (who were brigaded along with the regular troops) for those contests which they were soon to wage for their independence with the very men by whose side they now fought hand to hand against the French—their subsequent allies. Little did Washington then contemplate the destiny that awaited him.

The campaign of 1755 was closed in October by the British retiring to Albany, after reinforcing the garrison of Oswego, but without any attack on Crown Point. France, fully aware of the importance of Canada, sent out early in the ensuing year a large body of chosen troops, under the command of the gallant and experienced Major-General the Marquis de Montcalm, who soon invested Fort Oswego, and compelled the garrison to surrender. In the next year's campaign (1757), success still signalized the progress of the French arms: Fort George was invested and captured; and the English prisoners, amounting to nearly 2,000 regular troops of H. M.'s service, were brutally massacred while on their march to Fort Edward, by the Indian allies of the French—the latter asserting or pretending that they were, through inability or neglect, incapacitated from preventing the perpetration of this horrid slaughter. The feelings with which the news of this monstrous

deed were received in England and throughout British America may well be conceived; it helped to hasten the downfall of the French dominion in Canada, the deepest abhorrence being excited against those who permitted or sanctioned such a diabolical act. The elder Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham), then at the head of affairs, and in the full blaze of his eloquence, infused a noble spirit into His Majesty's counsels, and so wielded the resources and energies of the nation, that the effects were speedily felt in America.

France reinforced her Canadian garrisons: and England opened the campaign of 1759 with a plan of combined operations by sea and land, somewhat, if not mainly, formed on the plan adopted in 1690, and already detailed. The invasion of Canada was to take place at three different points under three generals of high talent; that destined for Quebec being considered the chief. The forces for the latter place were under the command of the heroic General Wolfe, and amounted to about 8,000 men, chiefly drawn from the army which, under the same commander, had taken Fort Louisburg in Cape Breton, and subdued the whole island in the preceding year¹. Wolfe's army was conveyed to the vicinity of Quebec by a fleet of vessels of war and transports, commanded by Admiral Saunders², and was landed in two

¹ See Colonial Library, Volume on Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, &c.

² The naval forces for the service of N. America consisted of 20 sail of the line, 2 ships of 50 guns, 12 frigates, and 14 smaller vessels

divisions of the island of Orleans, 27th June, 1759. The Marquis de Montcalm made vigorous preparations for defending Quebec—his armed force consisted of about 13,000 men, of whom six battalions were regulars, and the remainder well-disciplined Canadian militia, with some cavalry and Indians; and his army was ranged from the river St. Lawrence to the falls of Montmorenci, with the view of opposing the landing of the British forces. A few ships of war, including fire-ships, assisted De Montcalm. The skilful disposition of the French commander was shown in the failure of the British attack on the intrenchments at Montmorenci, where the British lost 182 killed and 450 wounded, including 11 officers killed and 46 wounded. In consequence of this repulse, Wolfe sent despatches to England stating that he had doubts of being able to reduce Quebec during that campaign.

Prudence and foresight are the characteristics of a good general as well as of an able statesman—Wolfe called a council of war—he showed that the fire of his ships of war, which had passed and repassed Quebec, had done little damage to the citadel, though the lower town had been nearly destroyed—that further attacks on the Montmorenci intrenchments were useless; it was therefore proposed, as the only hope of success, to gain the heights of Abraham behind and above the city, commanding the weakest point of the fortress¹. The council, composed of the principal naval and military commanders, acceded to this

¹ The honour of this suggestion is claimed by General Townshend's family for their distinguished ancestor.

daring proposal; and their heroic leader, although suffering severely from sickness, commenced his operations on the memorable morning of the 13th September, 1759, with an address, secrecy and silence that have perhaps never been equalled; indeed, so difficult was the ascent of the narrow pass where the troops landed, that the soldiers had to climb the precipice by the aid of the branches of shrubs, and roots of trees growing among the rocks. De Montcalm found all his vigilance unavailing to guard this important pass—he lost his usual prudence and forbearance, and finding his opponent had gained so much by hazarding all, he, with an infatuation for which it is difficult to account, resolved to meet the British in battle array on the plains of Abraham. The French sallied forth from a strong fortress without field artillery—without even waiting for the return of a large force of 2,000 men detached as a corps of observation under De Bougainville against the British fleet¹

¹ Admiral Saunders was ordered to feign an attack on the French intrenchments *below* the town, on the Beauport shore. This feint having been made, and the French force, under De Bougainville, marched from Quebec to watch and oppose them, the British troops were embarked about one o'clock in the morning, and proceeded up the river about 10 miles beyond the intended place of landing, in order to deceive the French; our soldiers were then placed in boats, which were allowed to drop down with the tide, and thus passed, unobserved, the sentinels placed on the shore. The ships then followed and covered their landing. The debarkation was effected a little below the intended spot, and a little path in the steep of the hill was defended by a French captain's guard; the light infantry, under Colonel Howe, climbing on their hands and knees, dislodged the enemy, and at daybreak the whole of the British were ranged in battle

—and with a heat and precipitation as remarkable as were the coolness and precision of the British. The eagle eye of Wolfe saw that to him retreat was almost impossible; but, while directing his main attention to the steady advance of his right division, he skilfully covered his flanks, and endeavoured to preserve their communication with the shore. Both armies may be said to have been without artillery, the French having only two guns, and the English a light cannon, which the sailors dragged up the heights with ropes; the sabre and the bayonet accordingly decided the day, and never was the nervous strength of the British arm better wielded¹. The agile Scotch Highlanders, with their stout claymores, served the purposes of cavalry, and the steady fire of the English fusileers compensated in some degree for the want of artillery. The French fought with a desperation heightened by the fanaticism to which their priests had excited them against the English heretics, while the heroism of De Montcalm was as conspicuous as that of his illustrious opponent; both headed their men—both rushed with eagerness wherever the battle raged most fiercely, and often by their personal prowess and example changed the fortune of the moment;—both were repeatedly wounded², but still fought with

order on the heights, to the great surprise of De Montcalm, who thought such a feat almost impossible.

¹ The British regiments employed were the 15th, 22nd, 28th, 35th, 40th, 43rd, 45th, 47th, 48th, 58th, 60th (2nd and 3rd battalions), and 78th, and a corps of rangers.

² Wolfe charged at the head of the grenadiers of the 22nd, 40th and 45th regiments, who had acquired the honourable title

an enthusiasm which those only who have mixed in the heady current of battle can conceive,—in fine, both those gallant commanders fell mortally wounded, while advancing on the last deadly charge, at the head of their respective columns.—Wolfe, faint with the loss of blood, reeled, and leant against the shoulder of one of his officers—the purple stream of life was ebbing—the eye that but a few moments before beamed bright with glory, waxed dim, and he was sinking to the earth when the cry of ‘*they run!*—*they run!*’ arrested his fleeting spirit.—‘*Who run?*’ exclaimed the dying hero—‘*The French,*’ returned his supporter—‘*Then I die contented!*’ were the last words of a Briton who expired in the arms of victory. The chivalrous Montcalm also perished—rejoicing in his last moments that he should not live to witness the surrender of Quebec—and both the conquerors and the conquered joined in deploring their respective national loss¹.

of Louisburgh grenadiers: he was first wounded in the wrist—the second ball struck him in the groin—but though suffering from fever and dysentery, he still pressed on at the head of his men, until he fell mortally wounded from a ball in the breast.

¹ The loss on our side was, *in killed*—1 general, 1 captain, 6 lieutenants, 1 ensign, 3 serjeants, and 45 rank and file; *in wounded*—1 brigadier-general, 4 staff officers, 12 captains, 26 lieutenants, 10 engineers, 25 serjeants, 4 drummers, and 506 rank and file. The French loss was about 1,500. The ordnance taken in Quebec amounted to 6 brass guns—205 iron cannon—and 25 mortars: 37 guns and 1 mortar were also taken on several batteries between St. Charles river and Beauport. There was also a large quantity of shells, shot, ammunition, small arms and intrenching tools.

The battle may be said to have decided the fate of the French dominion in Canada¹: five days after the citadel of Quebec was surrendered, and occupied by General Murray, with a force of 5000 men, and the British fleet sailed for England. The contemplated junction of the invading British forces took place at Montreal in September, 1760; and by the treaty between France and England in 1763, the former resigned all further pretensions to Canada and Nova Scotia, thus losing at one blow every acre of her North American dominions.

The population of Canada, on its conquest by the British, was about 65,000, inhabiting a narrow strip of land on the banks of the St. Lawrence, and chiefly employed in agriculture; no people ever had juster cause of gratitude for the cession of the country to Great Britain than the Canadians. Bigot, the Intendant, or king's financier, and his creatures, plundered the colonists in every direction; a paper currency termed card-money, founded on the responsi-

¹ A battle took place in the vicinity of Quebec 28th April, 1760, between General Murray, who had been left with a garrison of 5,000 men, and who quitted his fortress with 3,000 troops to give battle to the Chevalier De Levi, who had collected an army of regulars and militia amounting to 12,000 men; the battle was furiously fought for two hours, but overpowered by numbers, the English were compelled to return to Quebec, with the loss of 1,000 men and all their field artillery. The French, however, lost 2,500 men. De Levi besieged Quebec, but the arrival of a small squadron with troops relieved the siege, and compelled the precipitate retreat of De Levi. Montreal capitulated to General Amherst on the 8th Sept. 1760.

bility of the King of France, for the general support of the civil and military establishments of the colony, and which, from having been faithfully redeemed during a period of thirty years, enjoyed unlimited credit, enabled Bigot to conceal for a long time his waste and peculations; and while the British were capturing Canada by force of arms, the French monarch was destroying the commerce and prospects of his subjects by dishonouring the bills of exchange of the Intendant, to whom he had granted absolute power; thus involving in ruin not only the holders of 12,000,000 livres (£500,000 sterling), but also those who possessed any paper currency, which at the conquest amounted to £4,000,000 sterling, and the only compensation received for which, was four per cent. on the original value.

Civil and religious liberty was granted to the Canadians; and in the words of the writer of the *Political Annals of Canada*, ‘previous history affords no example of such forbearance and generosity on the part of the conquerors towards the conquered,—forming such a new era in civilized warfare that an admiring world admitted the claim of Great Britain to the glory of conquering a people, less from views of ambition and the security of her other colonies, than from the hope of improving their situation and endowing them with the privileges of freemen.’

Although the English had obtained possession of Canada from the French, they were soon obliged to contend for its preservation with those who had assisted them to capture it—I allude to the British colonists who had now (1775) cast off their allegi-

ance to the mother country, rather than submit to a series of continued oppressions, the final one being a heavy taxation¹ without the taxed colonists being represented in the Imperial Senate.

I am forbidden by the nature of my work to detail the operations of the war between England and the revolted colonists of New England, &c. but the general reader will probably desire to peruse briefly the operations that took place in Canada during this eventful period.

The New Englanders and their fellow-colonists, now separated from Great Britain, and hereafter to be styled *Americans*, had no sooner established their independence, than they attempted to seize on Canada, which but a few years before they had aided England in conquering from the French. About the close of the summer of 1775, the American forces invaded Canada by Lake Champlain, and from the sources of the Kennebec river. The first division of the American army, under the command of Brigadier-General Montgomery, was remarkably successful; Montreal, Chambly, St. John's, Longueuil, and other posts of importance at that time, fell into their hands, and all the military stores and provisions at Montreal and on the rivers were captured by the Americans.

The second division of the American army under Colonel Arnold, traversing with dreadful fatigue the forests and swamps in the district of Maine, arrived at Satagan on the 4th November, and on the 8th

¹ The money which it was endeavoured to levy was to assist in defraying the great expense incurred in the occupation of Canada.—What a strange concatenation of events!

reached Point Levi, opposite Quebec, on the south shore of the St. Lawrence. Quebec was at this moment almost defenceless, and had General Arnold been able to cross the river, the capital and with it the territory of the Canadas must have passed into the hands of the Americans. General Carleton, the British Governor, was at this time occupied with his troops near Montreal, in endeavouring to repulse the attacks of General Montgomery, who had made himself master of that city, and was also desirous of effecting a junction with the second division of the army under Arnold. The British General perceiving that the safety of the province depended on the possession of Quebec, effected a masterly movement, and arrived at the citadel on the 19th November without interruption from Arnold's army, which had crossed the St. Lawrence a short distance above Quebec, taken possession of the environs, and finally encamped at Pointe Aux Trembles, 21 miles from Quebec, awaiting the arrival of Montgomery from Montreal before he attacked the fortress.

General Carleton's arrival in Quebec was hailed with great joy ; the Canadians vied with the oldest British soldiers in preparations for defence ; and his little garrison of 1,800 men (of whom only 350 were regulars, 450 seamen, and the remainder a gallant band of Canadian militia and armed artificers) awaited with calm confidence the attack of the combined American forces. The siege, or rather blockade, continued throughout the month of December. Montgomery then called a council of war, and it was resolved to attempt to carry Quebec by assault,

during the night of the 31st December. The besiegers approached the citadel with the most careful silence, aided by the raging of a furious snow storm ; as they approached Prescott gate by the road, which winds round the face of the rock leading from the lower to the upper town, the army became crowded into the long narrow pass which led to the gate of the fortress, and the confused noise of the American troops, notwithstanding every precaution, rose above the conflict of the elements, and struck the watchful ear of the outer sentinel, who, receiving no answer to his challenge, roused the British guard. General Montgomery¹ formed his men for the attack, and advanced with vigour to the assault ;—with a quickness and precision deserving of the highest praise, the English troops and Canadian militia opened a tremendous fire on the enemy from the artillery which commanded the path—the groans which succeeded plainly revealed the enemy, and when every sound in answer to their fire had died away, then only did the besieged cease their cannonade ; the morning dawned on no enemy, and no trace of one was to be seen, for the thickly falling snow had covered the dead bodies of the brave but unfortunate Montgomery, and his daring band, whose bold attempt was thus so

¹ Brig. Gen. R. Montgomery was a gentleman of good family in the North of Ireland, and connected by marriage with Viscount Ranelagh. He served under Wolfe as captain of the 17th on the heights of Abraham, and on his marriage with the daughter of Judge Livingstone, joined the cause of the colonists, and perished in attacking the fortress which he had aided the British in acquiring.

terribly checked. After a few other unsuccessful attacks, the American army, although reinforced with 2,000 fresh troops, raised the siege on the 6th of May, and drew off towards their own country.

At the time of the invasion there were not more than 900 regular troops in the British colony, and the greater part of these surrendered in Forts Chambly and St. John, or were taken in the craft retiring from Montreal, while there was no militia in existence. Such however were the feelings of the Canadians, on account of the honourable treatment experienced from the English government, after the conquest of the colony from the French, that they cheerfully and nobly exerted themselves to preserve Canada for England, thus affording another illustration of the wisdom of humane and generous policy. The American force amounted to about 4,000 men ; but Arnold and Montgomery calculated on being joined by the great mass of the Canadian population, amongst whom partizans and emissaries from New England and New York had been actively disseminating circulars from Congress for the purpose of acting on their prejudices. These expedients not only failed but recoiled on the heads of their fabricators.

When the Americans evacuated the province, they had about 8,000 men, but the Canadian militia and regulars presented to them an organised force of 13,000, and thus compelled their retreat across the frontier.

From this period (1776), to 1812, Canada remained free from foreign aggression, and rapidly rose in

population and prosperity.¹ In 1812, however, the Americans, thinking the period propitious for capturing Canada (a favourite scheme not yet abandoned) by reason of the sway which the inveterate enemy of England exercised throughout Europe, resolved to declare war against England, and invade Canada, where it was supposed the mass of the people would be disposed to receive the Americans with open arms.

On the breaking out of the war, Upper Canada was partly peopled by emigrants from the United States, who might be supposed unwilling to shed the blood of their kindred ; the people of Lower Canada had but recently been represented by authority as seditious, or so easily turned away from their allegiance as to endanger the government. There were but about 4,000 British troops in both provinces, scattered along a frontier of 1,300 miles ; and the St. Lawrence, an immense military highway, open to the United States, and leading into the heart of Canada, was undefended, thus endangering the safety of the British forces stationed on its borders. With the view of keeping up the price of bills of exchange, of which the military government was the chief vender, the specie of the country had been suffered to be carried into the United States. Since the war of 1775 there had existed in the Canadas a militia merely in name, serving chiefly to drain, annually, a few thousand dollars from the public coffers. Accordingly, on the arrival of the news of the decla-

¹ The division of Canada into provinces upper and lower, took place in 1791, but the general history of both is thus given connectedly.

ration of war at Montreal and Quebec, the first thought of many individuals in those cities was that of packing up. The governor, Sir George Prevost, and the people at large, thought differently. It was determined to defend both provinces ; the Legislature was assembled ; and government paper, bearing interest, and payable in bills of exchange on England, was substituted for specie.

The arrival of two battalions, for the purpose of relieving two others under orders for their departure, added to the regular force. At the instance of the government, a law had passed during the preceding winter, for drafting the militia for actual service, and four weak battalions had been assembled before the war. Every description of force was now put in activity : the citadel of Quebec was guarded by the inhabitants of the town, proud of the duty and of the confidence of the government, and propagating the same feelings throughout the country. In a month after the declaration of war, the lower province seemed prepared to become the assailant. The Americans had collected, in the summer of 1811, their principal regular force on the north-western frontier against the Indians, whom they attacked. This force, joined by militia and volunteers, had set out on its march for Upper Canada, long before the declaration of war. It made roads through immense forests, depending on these roads for its communications and supplies, and arrived at Detroit, on the 5th July, about 2,500 strong. The British force on the frontier was nearly nominal. On the 12th July, the enemy passed over into Upper Canada, and issued

a proclamation to the apparently defenceless inhabitants, inviting them to join his standard, or at least to remain inactive, assuring them of the protection of the United States. After some trifling skirmishes with the handful of British troops stationed at Amherstburg, and upon hearing of the surrender of Michilimackinack, on the 17th of July, to a few soldiers, voyageurs, and Indians, he became alarmed for his own safety, and returned to Detroit on the 7th of August. Sir George Prevost had entrusted the government and command of Upper Canada to General Brock, a straight-forward politician, and an able, active, and spirited soldier, who infused an excellent spirit into the loyal inhabitants. The command of Lake Erie still remained with the British. On the 5th August, Brock prorogued the parliament at York; on the 12th he was at Amherstburg; and on the 16th, the American General, Hull, and his whole army, surrendered to a force of 330 regulars, 400 militia, and 600 Indians. People were utterly amazed when they saw so considerable a part of the American forces marched captive into Montreal and Quebec, within two months after the commencement of hostilities. Two months after the surrender of Hull, the enemy had collected a large force on the Niagara frontier. On the 13th of October, this force crossed over into Upper Canada, at Queenston, overpowering the small detachment stationed there. Brock was stationed at Fort George. Such was his ardour that he hastened to the spot before his army. He put himself at the head of a small party, which was still resisting the enemy, and the country

was, by his death, too early deprived of his talents and his services. The enemy obtained possession of the heights, but was soon dislodged, and in great part made prisoners by General Sheaffe, on whom the command had devolved. A temporary truce ensued in this quarter, till it was interrupted by a ridiculous gasconade and impudent attempt at invasion, on the 20th and 28th of November, near Fort Erie, by the American General Smith. Another equally absurd attempt was made, about the same time, by the British naval force on Lake Ontario against Sacket's Harbour. The rest of the winter passed away without any military event, except the capture, on the 22nd January, by General Proctor, after a smart action, of 49 prisoners, amongst whom was the American General Winchester, on the Detroit frontier; and an attack on Ogdensburg, which, in reality, meant nothing, unless it had been a prelude to an attack on Sacket's Harbour. From the time of the surrender of Hull, the Americans, however much they blamed that officer, seemed to have been fully aware of the true cause of his disaster; they, therefore, strained every nerve to obtain the mastery of the lakes.

The ice no sooner disappeared on Lake Ontario, than they were out with a superior naval force from Sacket's Harbour.

On the 27th April, they landed and took possession of York, the capital of Upper Canada, destroyed the public buildings, wreaked their vengeance on a printing-press, and destroyed the frame of a ship, building for the British service, on the Lake; Gene-

ral Sheaffe retiring, after some resistance, towards Kingston. The enemy's fleet proceeded to Niagara, where it landed troops, and then returned to Sacket's Harbour, from whence it conveyed additional forces to the same quarter. On the 28th May, General Vincent was driven from the position of Fort George, and the place was captured; the British retiring along the Lake, towards Burlington Bay, leaving the whole Niagara frontier, containing a very large proportion of the whole population of Upper Canada, in the power of the enemy. General Proctor had at this time returned from the rapids of the Miami, where he had captured 467 American soldiers, and killed or wounded as many more; but the enemy was still collecting, and Proctor's communications were threatened. From Fort George, the American army proceeded in pursuit of General Vincent, depending on the Lake for its supplies, and determined to take possession of Burlington heights, which would have left no common communication for General Proctor. General Vincent was at Burlington heights. The enemy had advanced to Stoney Creek, relying on his superiority and his distance from the British. Lieut. Col. Harvey, Dep. Adj. Gen., conceived and chiefly executed the plan of surprising the enemy in the night. Before day on the 6th June, he entered the enemy's camp, consisting of about 3,000 men, with 704 bayonets, killing and wounding a great number of the enemy, and retired, carrying off 2 generals and 120 prisoners. This affair so effectually disconcerted the Americans, that they returned hastily to Fort George, opening to the British the communication

with part of the Niagara frontier, and, in fact, saving for the time the whole upper part of the province.

The surrender of 341 of the enemy, under Boerstler, to the Indians and a few British soldiers, confined the enemy to Fort George. While the American troops and their naval force were absent at the head of the Lake, an attempt was made on Sacket's Harbour. Col. Baynes, Adj. Gen., had nominally the command, but Sir George Prevost, the Commander-in-Chief, was present: and when the Americans were retreating, as was said, the latter called off the troops after they had reached the defences of the place, and had sustained considerable loss. This affair, by the opportunity which it afforded to Sir George's political enemies to lessen the estimation in which he was held, and by the misunderstanding, of which it laid the foundation, between him and the naval service, proved very unfortunate to the British interest in the Canadas during the remainder of the war. The campaign continued for some time without any event of much moment. On the 3rd of June, two American armed vessels, carrying 22 guns, were gallantly captured by the British troops, at Isle aux Noix, under the command of Lieut. Col. George Taylor, Major 105th Regt., after a well-contested action of three hours, which almost annihilated the enemy's naval power on Lake Champlain.

On the 11th July, there was an attack on Black Rock; and on the 30th of that month, Colonel Murray destroyed the American barracks at Plattsburg. On the 10th of September, Commodore

Perry, with a naval force, long blockaded at Erie, captured the whole of the British force on Lake Erie. General Proctor could no longer be supplied on the Detroit frontier ; his only communication was by land, several hundred miles through forests.

His situation had now become that of Hull, at Detroit ; he had one advantage, however, which Hull had not—the friendship of the Indians. He unaccountably delayed his retreat for a fortnight after the loss of his fleet, and till the near approach of a superior force of the enemy. On the 5th of October, he was only three days' march (56 miles) from Detroit, pursuing his retreat along the Trenché. His force consisted of less than 1,000 British and militia, and about 1,200 Indians ; the Americans were upwards of 3,000. A sudden charge of mounted riflemen broke the British line ; the whole was thrown into confusion, and the greater part of the British were made prisoners. The Indians, in another part of the field, fought bravely ; but the Americans finally prevailed. They returned immediately after the action to Detroit with their prisoners ; and Proctor, with a few stragglers, and a number of Indians, assembled at Ancaster, on the 17th October. A large proportion of the American forces, on the Niagara frontier, proceeded down the lake early in October, and were followed by land by part of the British forces. The diminished numbers of the remaining part of the British army, the disaster on Lake Erie, and the state of affairs on the Detroit frontier, again compelled its commander to fall back on Burlington Heights. The American forces were

gradually collected at the lower ends of Lakes Ontario and Champlain, under Generals Wilkinson and Hampton, with the intention of making a combined attack on Montreal, while the chief part of the British regular force was in Upper Canada. It was evident that, if this attack succeeded, and the command of that city and the surrounding country should be retained by the Americans, Upper Canada was conquered, and every British soldier in it a prisoner, or forced to fight his way to Quebec. There was nothing to prevent Wilkinson, with suitable boats, and able pilots for the rapids, to land on the Island of Montreal, with an army completely equipped, in three or four days after his leaving Lake Ontario. Hampton was only a couple of days' march from the St. Lawrence. Sir George Prevost called upon the people of Lower Canada to defend their country; and never was the call, under similar circumstances, more cheerfully obeyed. The fighting, however, fell to the lot of the embodied militia and regular forces. There seems to have been some misunderstanding, with respect to time, between the enemy's commanders. Hampton appears to have employed himself from the 20th of September to the 20th of October, in calling out and collecting the forces of Lower Canada, by the time of General Wilkinson's arrival. On the 21st of October, the former entered the province, with a force variously stated at from 3,000 to 7,000 men, apparently with the intention of penetrating to the St. Lawrence, by the River Chateauguay. On the 26th, he came upon Colonel De Salaberry's position on that river, about

30 miles from the frontier. This officer, a native of Canada, belonging to one of its old and most distinguished families, had served with the British army in various parts of the world. To great activity and personal intrepidity, he united military science and experience, and possessed the entire confidence of his little force, forming the advance of the army, consisting of about 300 men, almost entirely natives of Lower Canada, and composed of fencibles, voltigeurs, militia, and Indians. The enemy, consisting chiefly of new levies, seemed to think that the battle was to be won by field manœuvres, and platoon-firing. Colonel De Salaberry took advantage of all the protection for his men, that time and the facilities afforded by a woody country permit, and poured in a deadly fire, every man making sure of his object; the Colonel setting the example. The enemy's loss was considerable, but has never been correctly ascertained; that of Colonel De Salaberry's force was, 2 killed and 16 wounded. Hampton retired to the frontier, and thence to Plattsburg, where he remained in a state of inactivity, his army dwindling away by sickness and desertion. General Wilkinson, with his army, left Grenadier Island on the 5th November, in boats and other craft. It consisted of between 8,000 and 9,000 men, completely equipped and provided. He passed the British fort, at Prescott, on the night of the 6th. It was a beautiful moonlight: he might have been, the next evening, at the Island of Montreal as soon as General Prevost could receive the account of his approach. The militia called to oppose Hampton,

had just been sent to their homes. Wilkinson, however, landed part of his troops to pass Prescott; he again landed the greatest part of them on the British side, above the Long Sault, in quest of obstacles which did not exist. These delays gave time to detachments from the garrisons of Kingston and Prescott to overtake him, and to Sir George Prevost again to call out the militia, about 20,000 of whom were assembling from various parts of the country. On the 11th of November, the American General Boyd, with about 2,000 men, the élite of the American army, marched against Colonel Morrison, who commanded the British forces from Kingston and Prescott, amounting to 800 men, which hung on Boyd's rear. The Americans were beaten, and retired to their boats; and after embarking a force of 2,500 men, under General Brown, which had proceeded to Cornwall, opposed only by the inhabitants of the country, the whole army crossed to Salmon River, and took up a position at the French mills; from which, after destroying their boats, they ultimately proceeded to Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, sending 2,000 men to Sacket's Harbour. The American forces having been chiefly withdrawn from the Niagara frontier, the British in that quarter prepared to act on the offensive. On the 12th December, the enemy evacuated Fort George, and burnt the town of Newark, leaving the inhabitants ruined and houseless, in the midst of winter, to all of whom they had promised protection, many of them being friendly to the Americans. On the 19th, Colonel Murray took Fort Niagara by surprise.

On the 30th, General Riall retaliated on the enemy, by destroying Black Rock and Buffalo. Although many projects of hostilities were entertained on both sides, during the remainder of the winter, nothing was done of any importance till the 30th of March, when Wilkinson, at the head of upwards of 3,000 men, entered Lower Canada, on the western shore of Lake Champlain, and attacked, unsuccessfully, La Colle Mill, defended by Major Handcock, of the 13th regiment, and about 180 men. The General then retired unmolested to the United States, and closed his military career. The failure of the enemy's attempts against Lower Canada, and the course of events in Europe, began to give a new character to the war. Instead of having for its object the wresting of Canada from Great Britain, it became, on the part of the United States, a war more of a defensive nature, or, at least, the offensive measures were confined to a part of the Upper Province.

Although the British naval force on Lake Ontario had ventured out of port during the preceding campaign, all the advantages of naval superiority were on the side of the Americans¹. Early in the season of 1814, Sir James Yeo, who, with naval officers, seamen, and shipwrights, had arrived from England early in 1813, laid claim to the command of the Lake. Sir Gordon Drummond, with troops from Kingston, accordingly embarked in the fleet, and

¹ The Americans ran their ships up in a few weeks, and had all their supplies on the spot; we built our ships as slowly and regularly as if they were intended for the ocean, and had to send the greater part of the material from England.

captured Oswego, on the 6th of May. The American fleet, however, soon seemed to have regained its former superiority. The American army assembled on the Niagara frontier, under the command of General Brown, well known in Lower Canada, before the war, as a plain farmer and dealer in lumber and potash, and who commanded at Sacket's Harbour, when attacked by Sir George Prevost. On the 3rd July, this officer, at the head of between 3,000 and 4,000 men, crossed over into Upper Canada, at Black Rock, and obtained possession of Fort Erie by capitulation. On the 5th, he was met by General Riall, with about 2,000 regulars, militia, and Indians, at Chippawa. The British loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, was 515 ; that of the Americans, 322. On the 18th, General Riall fell back on Fort George ; and on the 9th, to the Twenty-mile Creek, where he received reinforcements. The enemy proceeded to invest Fort George, and committed indiscriminate plunder on the inhabitants of the frontier. The thriving village of St. David's was entirely destroyed. On the 23rd, General Brown fell back to Queenston, and General Riall advanced. On the 25th, in the afternoon, the two armies again met, near the Falls. General Riall, after sustaining a severe loss, ordered a retreat. General Drummond, who arrived at Fort George that morning from York, with reinforcements, ordered an advance. The field was gallantly contested till midnight, when the enemy retired to his camp, and thence towards Fort Erie.

The American force in this action was about 4,000 ; that of the British, as stated by General Drummond,

2,800. The total loss of the latter was 878; of the Americans, 854. The British army arrived before Fort Erie on the 3rd of August, and invested the place. On the 11th, the American armed schooners Ohio and Somers, aiding in the defence of the place, were carried by 75 British seamen, under Captain Dobbs, in boats, some of which had been carried on men's shoulders from Queenston.

On the night of the 15th, the British assaulted the fort, and were repulsed with heavy loss; the gallant and amiable Colonel Scott, of the 103rd, and the intrepid Colonel Drummond, of the 104th, being among the killed. The total loss was 905; that of the enemy only 84. After this unfortunate affair, General Drummond converted the siege into a blockade. On the 26th of June, transports arrived at Quebec from Bordeaux with the 6th and 82nd regiments. They were ordered to the Niagara frontier, where they arrived late in August, having had to march round Lake Ontario. The principal part of the remainder of the troops which arrived from France, were assembled on the Richelieu River, where they were brigaded with the forces already in that quarter, under General de Rottenburg, for the purpose of carrying into effect instructions from England for offensive operations against the United States. Great exertions had for some time previous been making on both sides, to ensure a superiority on Lake Champlain. On the 3rd of September, the British army, amounting to 11,000 men, under Sir George Prevost, passed the frontier by Odell Town, and reached Plattsburg on the 6th, with trifling

opposition, where the American General Macomb occupied a fortified position with 1,500 regulars, and as many of the inhabitants, all trained to arms, as could be collected from both sides of the Lake. From the 6th to the 11th, battering cannon were brought up from the rear, and batteries erected by the British.

On the 11th, the British flotilla from Isle aux Noix came up and attacked the American naval force in the bay; the land batteries opened at the same time, and the troops moved to the assault. When they had reached the heights on which the American works were situated, victory declared itself in favour of the American naval force. Sir George Prevost countermanded the orders for the attack; the next morning the whole army retreated, and on the 13th re-entered the province, with a total loss of 235 men, exclusive of deserters, which on this, as on every occasion when the British soldiers entered the enemy's country, was considerable.

On the 17th September, the American forces made a sortie from Fort Erie, which was repulsed, but with severe loss. On the 21st, the British broke up, and retired upon Chippawa, Fort George, and Burlington Heights. On the 17th October, Sir James Yeo appeared on the Lake, and brought reinforcements and supplies to General Drummond, the American squadron under Chauncey remaining in Sacket's Harbour. On the 5th November the Americans evacuated Fort Erie, the only military fort which they held in the Canadas; a predatory party which proceeded from Detroit, and penetrated more than a hundred miles

into Upper Canada, plundering the property, and destroying the dwellings of the loyal inhabitants, having also retired on the approach of a British detachment from Burlington Heights. Michilimacinauck, which the American superiority on Lake Erie and Lake Huron enabled them to attack, had been gallantly defended by Colonel M'Donall. The enemy burnt the establishment of the North West Company at Sault St. Marie. The Colonel, however, managed to send parties of voyageurs and Indians to the head of the Mississippi, and captured the post of Prairie du Chien. British naval officers and seamen, sent overland from York, had also captured in open boats two American armed schooners on Lake Huron, and preparations were making to secure the command of that Lake, and even recover that of Lake Erie, with which the former communicates by Detroit. On the 24th December, 1814, a treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Ghent; on the 18th February, 1815, it was ratified and proclaimed at Washington, and on the 9th of March made known at Quebec by Sir George Prevost. Neither the close of the war, nor the treaty, was considered in Canada as befitting the character of Great Britain, a nation which had so recently acted the principal part in reducing the most formidable power that had been known in modern Europe. Men who had beaten the most celebrated troops in the world, in a series of battles from Gibraltar to Bordeaux, were restrained from acting against an inferior force at Plattsburg, and defeated and destroyed in an attack

on mud breast works at New Orleans, defended by peasantry and raw levies. The whole conduct of the war on the part of Great Britain ¹ was considered as extraordinary. When Canada was to be defended, there was a deficiency of the force in which England abounded, ships and seamen, jeopardizing the whole country, notwithstanding the zeal and loyalty of the people, the many instances of distinguished military skill, and the general gallantry and persevering endurance of the army. When Britain was in circumstances to dispose of a force to act offensively against the United States, only a few thousand soldiers were sent to an open and populous country, where an European army could have operated to advantage; and a large force was sent against distant frontiers, where a regular force could neither act nor subsist itself, where, in fact, it was inferior to an equal number of militia-men and sharp-shooters, of which description of troops all the inhabitants of these frontiers consisted; and on the ocean, Great Britain exposed the bravest of her sons to be butchered, or disgraced, from an unpardonable ignorance of the superiority of the enemy's ships over those which were sent to contend against them.

These are lessons for the future, and with that view deserve to be placed on record; for which reason I have been induced to give the foregoing chronicle of Upper Canada, the further history of either province

¹ The Marquess Wellesley's retirement from the Foreign Department, in 1812, was in consequence of the shameful apathy of ministers, and their pusillanimous policy.

being of no especial moment. The following is a list of the Governors of the Lower Province under the French and English government :—

Sieur de Mésy, May, 1663. Sieur de Courcelles, 23 Sept. 1665. Sieur de Frontenac, 12 Do. 1672. Sieur de la Barre, 9 Oct. 1682. Sieur Marquis de Nonville, 3 Aug. 1685. Sieur de Frontenac, 28 Nov. 1689. Sieur Chevalier de Callieres, 14 Sept. 1699. Le Sieur Marquis de Vaudreuil, 17 Do. 1703. Le Sieur Marquis de Beauharnois, 2 Do. 1726. Sieur Conte de la Galissoniere, 25 Do. 1747. Sieur de la Jonquière, 16 Aug. 1749. Sieur Marquis du Guesne de Meneville, 7 Do. 1752. Sieur de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal, 10 July, 1755. James Murray, 21 Nov. 1765. Paulus Emilius Irving, (President) 30 June, 1766. Guy Carleton, Lt. Gov. &c. Com. in Chief, 24 Sept. 1766. Do. Do. 26 Oct. 1774. Hector J. Cramahé, (President) 9 Aug. 1770. Guy Carleton, 11 Oct. 1774. Frederick Haldimand, 1778. Henry Hamilton, Lt. Gov. and Com. in Chief, 1774. Henry Hope, Lt. Gov. and Com. in Chief, 1775. Lord Dorchester, Gov. General, 1776. Colonel Clarke, Lt. Gov. Com. in Chief, 1791. Lord Dorchester, 24 Sept. 1793. Robert Prescott, 1796. Sir Robert S. Milnes, Bart. Lt. Gov. 31 July, 1799. Hon. Thomas Dunn, (President) 31 Do. 1805. Sir J. H. Craig, K. B. Gov. Gen. 24 Oct. 1807. Hon. Thomas Dunn, (President) 19 June, 1811. Sir George Prevost, Bart. Gov. Gen. 14 Sept. 1811. Sir G. Drummond, G.C.B. Ad. in Chief, 14 April, 1815. John Wilson, Administrator, 22 May, 1816. Sir J. C. C. Sherbrooke, G.C.B. Gov. Gen. 12 July, 1816. Duke of Richmond, K.C.B. Gov. Gen. 30 Do. 1818. Hon. James Monk, (President) 20 Sept. 1819. Sir Peregrine Maitland, Do. 1820. Earl of Dalhousie, G.C.B. Gov. Gen. 18 June, 1820. Sir Frs. Matt. Burton, K.C.G. Lt. Gov. 7 June, 1824. Earl of Dalhousie, G.C.B. Gov. Gen. 23 Sept. 1825. Sir James Kemp, G.C.B. 8 Do. 1828. Lord Aylmer, July, 1830. Lord Gosford, July, 1835.

A List of the Lieutenant-Governors, Presidents, and Administrators of Upper Canada, from the division of the province 1791 to 1838.

Colonel John Graves Simcoe, Lieutenant-Governor, July 8th,

1792 ; the Honourable Peter Russel, President, July 21st, 1796 ; Lieutenant-General Peter Hunter, Lieutenant-Governor, August 17th, 1799 ; the Honourable A. Grant, President, September 11th, 1805 ; His Excellency Francis Gore, Lieutenant-Governor, August 25th, 1806 ; Major-General Sir Isaac Brock, President, September 30th, 1811 ; Major-General Sir R. H. Sheaffe, Bart., President, October 20th, 1812 ; Major-General F. Baron de Rottenburg, President, June 19th, 1813 ; Lieutenant-General Sir Gordon Drummond, K. C. B., Provincial Lieutenant-Governor, December 13th, 1813 ; Lieutenant-General Sir George Murray, Bart., Provincial Lieutenant-Governor, April 20th, 1815 ; Major-General Sir F. P. Robinson, K. C. B., Provincial Lieutenant-Governor, July 1st, 1815 ; His Excellency Francis Gore, Lieutenant Governor, September 25th, 1815 ; the Honourable Samuel Smith, Administrator, June 11th, 1817 ; Major-General Sir P. Maitland, K. C. B., Lieutenant-Governor, August 13th, 1818 ; the Honourable Samuel Smith, Administrator, March 8th, 1820 ; Major-General Sir P. Maitland, K. C. B., Lieutenant-Governor, June 30th, 1820 ; Major-General Sir John Colborne, Lieutenant-Governor, November 5th, 1828 ; Sir Francis Bond Head, Bart., 1836 ; Sir George Arthur, 1838.

CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY, PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, LAKES, CATARACTS, AND RIVERS—ISLANDS, CANALS, CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS, &c.

IN 1791, Canada was, by His Majesty's Order in terms of Council¹, divided into two provinces, called the Upper and Lower, each with a distinct govern-

¹ The words of the Order in Council are—'to commence at a stone boundary on the N. bank of the lake of St. Francis at the Cove W. of *Point au Baudet*, in the limit between the township of Lancaster and the seigniority of New Longueuil, running along the said limit in the direction of N. 34 W. to the westernmost angle of the said seigniority of New Longueuil; then along the N. W. boundary of the seniority of Vaudreuil, running N. 25 E. until it strikes the Ottawa river; to ascend the said river into the lake Temiscaming, and from the head of the said lake by a line drawn due N. until it strikes the boundary of Hudson's Bay, including all the territory to the westward and southward of the said line to the utmost extent of the country commonly called or known by the name of Canada.' The want of clearness in the above delineation, added to the imperfectness of the map on which it was drawn, particularly as regarded the westwardly angle of the seigniority of New Longueuil, and the S. W. angle of Vaudreuil, which are represented as *coincident*, when, according to the intelligent and patriotic Col. Bouchette, they are *nine miles distant* from each other—has naturally caused disputes as to the boundaries between Upper and Lower Canada.

ment; and as their physical features are somewhat different, it will be advisable for the sake of perspicuity to examine them separately.

Lower Canada is comprised within the parallels of 45° and 52° N. Lat., and the meridians of 57.50 to 80.6 W. of Greenwich; embracing, so far as its boundaries will admit of estimation, an area of 205,863 square miles, *including* a superficies of 3,200 miles, covered by the numerous lakes and rivers of the Province, and *excluding* the surface occupied by the St. Lawrence river and part of the gulf, which cover 52,000 square miles; the entire Province, land and water, being about a quarter of a million square miles, or 160,000,000 of acres.

Upper Canada is comprised within the parallels of 41° to 49° N., and the meridians of 74° to 117° W. of Greenwich, embracing an area of about 100,000 square miles, or 64,000,000 of acres. The general boundaries of this vast country have been stated in the preceding chapter; and it will be seen that the great lakes are divided between Great Britain and the United States, an arrangement which the French, while in possession of Canada, sedulously avoided conceding to the English.

The natural features of Lower Canada partake of the most romantic sublimities and picturesque beauties; indeed the least imaginative beholder cannot fail to be struck with the alternations and vast ranges of mountains, magnificent rivers, immense lakes, boundless forests, extensive prairies, and foaming cataracts.

Beginning with the bold sea-coast and ocean-like

river St. Lawrence, it may be observed that the eastern parts are high, mountainous, and covered with forests on both sides of the St. Lawrence to the very banks of the river; on the northern side the mountains run parallel with the river as far up as Quebec, when they take a course to the W. and S. W. as far as the extremity of the west limits: on the south side the mountainous range does not reach within 60 miles of Quebec, when it quits the parallel of the river and runs in a S. W. and S. direction into the United States. The latter mountains (on the S. of the St. Lawrence) are known by the name of the *Alleghanies*, and rise abruptly out of the Gulf of St. Lawrence at Percé, between the Bay of Chaleur and Gaspé Cape: they follow the course of the river at a greater distance from its banks than those on the north side, and also when opposite Quebec bend yet further to the southward; entering the United States the *Alleghanies* divide the Atlantic coast from the basin of the Ohio, their loftiest elevation being from 3,000 to 4,000 feet above the level of the sea. The country between the two ranges of mountains just mentioned, and the S. boundary line of Lower Canada in 45° of N. lat. is marked by numerous risings and depressions into hill and dale, with many rivers running from the N. and S. into the great valley of the St. Lawrence. In order to give a clear view of this valley, it will be well to divide it into sections, and then treat briefly of the rivers and lakes throughout the province—beginning with the sea-coast:—

NORTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—I. The

most northerly and easterly section of the province of Lower Canada, extending from *Ance au Sablon* on the Labrador coast to the *Saguenay* river, lat. 48.5, long. 69.37, occupies a front of 650 miles, of which we know little more than the appearance of the coast, as explored from time to time by fishers and hunters. A bold mountainous country in general characterizes the coast line; in some places the range recedes from the shores of the Gulf and river St. Lawrence to the extent of 12 or 15 miles, leaving a deep swampy flat or moss-bed nearly three feet in depth,—in other parts (as at Portneuf, 40 miles E. of the Saguenay) the shores are of moderate elevation, composed of alternate cliffs of light-coloured sand, and tufts or clumps of evergreens.

The country between the two points just stated, is well watered by numerous rivers, among which may be mentioned the Grande and Petite Bergeronnes, the Portneuf, Missisiquinak, Betsiamites, Bustard, Manicougan, Ichimanipistic (or seven islands), St. John, St. Austins and Esquimaux. We can scarcely be said to know any thing more of these rivers than their embouchures. There are no roads along the coast, and the only settlement of any consequence is at Portneuf, a trading mart belonging to the King's Post Company, who possess, under lease from the crown, the exclusive right of bartering, hunting, and fishing over this vast territory, and even to the westward of the Saguenay. The tract is termed the King's domain, and formed part of the 'United farms of France,' according to the Ordonnance of 1733.

II. The second geographical division of the pro-

vince N. of the river St. Lawrence, is that comprised within the mouths of the Saguenay and St. Maurice rivers, which form the great highways to the northern territories, and ramify in various directions with numerous lesser streams and lakes. The distance between the Saguenay and St. Maurice is about 200 miles;—Quebec being nearly equidistant from each river. From Quebec to the Saguenay there is a bold and strongly defined range of mountains; from Cape Torment, the ridge is unbroken (save where rivers find their exits to the St. Lawrence) to 15 miles below the Saguenay. Beyond this coast border, the country is in some places flat, in others undulating with chains of hills of moderate height, well watered by numerous lakes and rivers; among the latter are the St. Charles, the Montmorenci, the Great River, or St. Ann's, the du Gouffre, Black River, &c.

The country N. W. of Quebec, between that city and the St. Maurice, is not so bold as it is to the S. E. towards the Saguenay; the land rises in a gentle ascent from the St. Lawrence banks, presenting an extremely picturesque prospect, with alternations of water, wood, and rich cultivation, bounded in the distance by remote and lofty mountains. The rivers Jacques Cartier, Portneuf, St. Ann's and Batis-can, with their numerous tributaries, add fertility and beauty to the landscape.

III. The *third* territorial section N. of St. Lawrence, embraces the country lying between the St. Maurice river and the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, where Upper and Lower Canada meet. The aspect of the country from five to fifteen miles

from the river's bank is slightly elevated into table ridges, with occasional abrupt acclivities and plains of moderate extent.

The islands of Montreal, Jesus and Perrot, situate in the river St. Lawrence, come within this section. Montreal, the largest of the three, is a lovely isle of a triangular shape, 32 miles long by 10 broad, lying at the confluence of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, and separated on the N. W. from isle Jesus, by the *rivière des Prairies*. Montreal exhibits a surface nearly level with the exception of a mountain, (Coteau St. Pierre) and one or two hills of slight elevation, from which flow numerous streams and rivulets. The island is richly cultivated, and tastefully adorned. Isle Jesus, N. W. of Montreal, 21 miles long by 6 broad, is every where level, fertile, and admirably tilled; off its S. W. end is Isle Bizard, about four miles in length and nearly oval, well cleared and tenanted. Isle Perrot lies off the S. W. end of Montreal, seven miles long by three broad; level, sandy, and not well cleared: the small islets de la Paix are annexed to the seigniory of Isle Perrot, and serve for pasturages.

Before proceeding to describe the physical aspect of the S. side of the St. Lawrence, it may be proper to observe, that but little is known of the interior of the portion of the province bounded by the Ottawa or Grand River; so far as it has been explored, it is not distinguished by the boldness which characterizes the E. section of Lower Canada; now and then small ridges and extensive plains are met with, receding from the bed of the Ottawa, whose margin

is an alluvial flat, flooded often by the spring freshes and autumnal rains, to the extent of a mile from the river's bed. Beyond the first ridge that skirts these flats the country is little known.

IV. SOUTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—Let us now view the province on the S. of the Lawrence, beginning as before at the sea coast—on which the large county and district of Gaspé is situate. This peninsulated tract, more properly belonging to New Brunswick than to Lower Canada, lies between the parallel of 47.18 to 49.12 N. lat. and 64.12 to 67.53 W. long., bounded on the N. by the river St. Lawrence, on the E. by the Gulf of the same name, on the S. by the Bay of Chaleurs adjoining New Brunswick, and on the W. by the Lower Canada territory; having its greatest width from N. to S. about 90 miles, and with a sea coast extending 350 miles from Cape Chat round to the head of Ristigouche Bay. This large tract of territory has been as yet but very imperfectly explored; so far as we know, the face of the country is uneven, with a range of mountains skirting the St. Lawrence to the N., and another at no remote distance from the shores of Ristigouche river and Bay of Chaleurs;—between these ridges is an elevated and broken valley, occasionally intersected by deep ravines. } The district is well wooded, and watered by numerous rivers and lakes, the soil rich, and yielding abundantly when tilled. The sea beach is low (with the exception of Cape Gaspé, which is high with perpendicular cliffs) and frequently used as the highway of the territory; behind it, the land rises into high round hills, well wooded.

The chief rivers are the Ristigouche, into which fall the Pscudy, Goummitz, Guadamgonichone, Mistoue and Metapediac; the grand and little Nouvelle, grand and little Cascapediac, Caplin, Bonaventure, East Nouvelle, and Port Daniel, which discharge themselves into the Bay of Chaleurs;—grand and little Pabos, grand and little River, and Mal Bay river, flowing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence:—the river St. John, and N. E. and S. W. branches, fall into Gaspé Bay. There are also many lakes.

V. The country comprised between the western boundary of Gaspé and the E. of the Chaudiere river, has a front along the St. Lawrence river to the N. W. of 257 miles, and is bounded to the S. E. by the high lands dividing the British from the United States territories. These high lands are 62 miles from the St. Lawrence at their nearest point, but on approaching the Chaudiere river, they diverge southwardly. The physical aspect of this territory, embracing about 19,000 square miles (of which the United States claim about 10,000 square miles), is not so mountainous as the opposite bank of the St. Lawrence; it may more properly be characterized as a hilly region, abounding in extensive valleys. The immediate border of the St. Lawrence is flat, soon however rising into irregular ridges, and attaining an elevated and extensive *tableau*: at the distance of 15 to 20 miles from the shores of the St. Lawrence, the *tableau* gently descends towards the River St. John, beyond which it again re-ascends, acquiring a greater degree of altitude towards the sources of the Allegash—finally merging in the Connecticut range of mountains.

VI. The last section of Lower Canada, S. of the St. Lawrence, is that highly valuable tract W. of the river Chaudiere, fronting the St. Lawrence, and having in the rear the high lands of Connecticut and the parallel of the 45° of N. lat., which constitutes the S. and S. E. boundary of Lower Canada, where the latter is divided from the American States of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York. The superficial extent of this tract is 18,864 miles, containing 17 counties, and a population of 200,000. The physical aspect varies, throughout this extensive section; at the mouth of the Chaudiere the banks of the St. Lawrence still retain the boldness for which they are remarkable at Quebec and Point Levi, but proceeding westward, they gradually subside to a moderate elevation, till they sink into the flats of Baie du Fevre, and from the marshy shores of Lake St. Peter, whence the country becomes a richly luxuriant plain. Proceeding from Lake St. Peter towards Montreal, the boldness and grandeur of the country about Quebec may be contrasted with the picturesque champagne beauties of Richelieu, Vercheres, Chambly and La Prairie districts. In the former especially, the eye of the spectator is delighted with a succession of rich and fruitful fields, luxuriant meadows, flourishing settlements, neat homesteads, gay villages, and even delightful villas, adorning the banks of the Richelieu, the Yamaska and the St. Lawrence, whilst in the distance are seen the towering mountains of Rouville and Chambly, Rougemont, Mount Johnson and Boucherville, soaring majestically above the common level. As the country recedes from the St. Law-

rence banks to the E. and S. E. it gradually swells into ridges, becomes progressively more hilly, and finally assumes a mountainous character towards lakes Memphramagog and St. Francis, beyond which it continues to preserve more or less that boldness of aspect, to the borders of the Chaudiere, and the height of land at the Connecticut's sources¹. Colonel Bouchette, the Surveyor-general of Lower Canada, to whose valuable observations I am so much indebted in this volume, is of opinion that the range of hills traversing Bolton, Orford, &c. are a continuation of the Green mountains, which form a conspicuous ridge running from S. to W. through the State of Vermont. Several bold and conspicuous mountains rise isolated from the valleys or plains of Yamaska and Chambly, adding a delightful interest to the scenery. This territory is profusely watered by numerous rivers and lakes and rivulets, winding in every direction. The chief rivers are the Chaudiere (forming the boundary to the eastward), the Becancour, Nicolet (two branches), St. Francis, Yamaska, Richelieu (or Chambly), Chateauguay and Salmon; all but the three last having their sources within the province. The chief lakes are the Memphramagog (part in Canada, part in the United

¹ This is the section of the fine country known by the name of the *Eastern Townships*, in which the possessions of the British American Land Company are situate; a Company which has conferred great benefit on Canada—and the establishment of which is mainly owing to the indefatigable energy and patriotic principles of Nathaniel Gould, Esq. The roads formed in this Company's land are the only roads through which the British troops could pass in December, 1837—(see Appendix and Map).

States), Scaswaninipus, Tomefobi, St. Francis, Nicolet, Pitt, William, Trout, and many smaller ones¹.

Having now shown the natural divisions of the Province, we may proceed to investigate its greater water-courses, treating of the appearances visible on the face of each as we go along, and beginning with the—

GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE—which receives the waters of the numerous lakes and rivers of the Canadian portion of the American continent, and is formed by the western coast of Newfoundland, the eastern shores of Labrador, the eastern extremity of the province of New Brunswick, and by part of Nova Scotia and the island of Cape Breton—communicating with the Atlantic by three different channels, namely, by the Gut of Canso (a narrow passage dividing Cape Breton from Nova Scotia), a wider and main channel between Cape North in Cape Breton isle, and Cape Ray in Newfoundland—and the narrow straits of Belleisle, separating the Labrador coast from Newfoundland. The distance from Cape Rosier, Gaspé Bay, lat. 48.50.41, long. 64.15.24, to Cape Ray in Newfoundland, lat. 47.36.49, long. 59.21, is 79 leagues; and from Nova Scotia to Labrador the distance is 106 leagues. There are several islands in the Gulf,—the one most dangerous to navigators is in the principal entrance just described—between Newfoundland and Cape Breton—it is named St. Paul (lat. 47.12.38, long. 60.11.24, Compass variation 23.45 W.) Owing to its position, the steep-

¹ For a further account of rivers, lakes, falls, &c. see the respective sections under these heads.

ness of its shores, and the dense fogs frequent on this coast, St. Paul's is much in want of a light-house: the isle is small and barren. On the S. side of the bay is Prince Edward's or St. John's island, extending in a crescent-like form 123 miles, and at its narrowest part 12; to the northward are the small Magdalen islands, 11 in number, between the parallels of 47.30 and 47.38 N. lat., and 61.27 and 62 W. long. They were granted to Sir Isaac Coffin as a reward for his naval services, and five or six are inhabited by French Canadians, and English and Irish settlers, altogether numbering 1,000, who carry on a profitable fishery. Magdalen isle, the largest, is 17 leagues in length, but very narrow, being in some places not more than a mile wide¹.

THE RIVER ST. LAWRENCE, arising from the great and magnificent basin of Lake Superior (more than 1,500 miles in circumference) in Upper Canada, has a course to the sea of nearly 3,000 miles (varying from one to 90 miles broad), of which distance, including the lakes Ontario, Erie and Huron, it is navigable for ships of a large class very nearly 2,000 miles, and the remainder of the distance for barges, batteaux, and vessels drawing little water, of from 10 to 15 and even 60 tons burthen. The remotest spring of the St. Lawrence, if we consider the Canadian lakes as merely extensive widenings of the river, is the stream called St. Lewis, in lat. 48.30.

¹ North of the Magdalens is Brion's Island, and beyond this are the Bird isles or rocks; the north of which is in latitude 47.50.28, longitude 61.12.53. On this it is proposed to erect a light-house.

N., long. about 93 W. From its source, the general direction through lakes Superior and Huron is S. E. to Lake Erie—nearly due E. from that lake, and then N. E. to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, receiving in its vast course almost all the rivers that have their sources in the extensive range of mountains to the northward called the *Land's Height*, that separates the waters falling into Hudson's Bay from those that descend into the Atlantic; together with all those rivers that rise in the ridge which commences on its S. bank, running nearly S. W. to where the ridge falls on Lake Champlain. From the sea to Montreal, this superb river is called the *St. Lawrence*; from thence to Kingston in Upper Canada, the *Cataraqui* or *Iroquois*; between Lake Ontario and Erie, the *Niagara*; between lakes Erie and St. Clair, the *Detroit*; between lakes St. Clair and Huron, the *St. Clair*; and between lakes Huron and Superior the distance is called the *Narrows* or *Falls of St. Mary*. The St. Lawrence discharges¹ to the ocean annually about 4,277,880 *millions of tons* of fresh water, of which 2,112,120 millions of tons may be reckoned melted snow; the quantity discharged before the thaw comes on, being 4,512 *millions* of tons per day for 240 days, and the quantity after the thaw begins, being 25,560 *millions* per day for 125 days, the

¹ According to Mr. M'Taggart, a shrewd and humorous writer, to whom I am indebted for several valuable facts, the solid contents in cubic feet of the St. Lawrence, embracing lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie and Ontario, is estimated at 1,547,792,360,000 cubic feet, and the superficial area being 72,930 square miles, the water therein would form a cubic column of nearly 22 miles on each side!

depths and velocity when in and out of flood duly considered : hence a ton of water being nearly equal to 55 cubic yards of pure snow, the St. Lawrence frees a country of more than 2,000 miles square, covered to the depth of three feet. The embouchure of this first class stream is that part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence where the island of Anticosti divides the mouth of the river into two branches.

This island¹, 130 miles long and 30 broad, has neither bay nor harbour sufficient to afford shelter for shipping in bad weather. The aspect is generally low, but on the N. of the island the shore is more elevated, and three lofty mountain peaks, with high table land, break the monotonous appearance of so great an extent of flat country. The rivers are of no great magnitude, and we know too little of the soil and nature of the interior, to pronounce a decided opinion on its quality; from the position of the island it may be supposed to be alluvial: it is as yet uninhabited², but as land becomes more valuable, it will doubtless be colonized. The Canadian Parliament has recently caused two light-houses to be erected on the island, one at the E. point, the other at the S. W. The ship channel between Anticosti

¹ E. point lat. 49.8.30, long. 61.44.59. W. point, lat. 49.52.29, long. 64.36.54. Variation, 22.55. S.W. point, lat. 49.23, long. 63.44.

² In 1828 the shipwrecked mariners of the *Granicus* were forced to cannibalism, until the last wretched being perished for want of any more of his unfortunate companions to prey on. The bones and mangled remains of the slain were found scattered about on the wild shores of Anticosti, as if a struggle had taken place in the last extremity.

and the main land of Lower Canada is about 40 miles broad ¹.

On passing this island, the river St. Lawrence expands to a breadth of 90 miles ; and in mid-channel both coasts can be seen, the mountains on the N. shore having their snow-capt crests elevated to a vast height, and appearing more continuous in their outline than the Pyrenean range.

At the *Bay of Seven Islands*, which derives its name from the high and rugged islands which lie at its entrance, the St. Lawrence is 70 miles broad. There is deep water close to the islands, which appear to rise abruptly out of the sea ; the bay forms within a large round basin, with from 10 to 50 fathoms soundings ; at its head, the land appears to sink low in the horizon, while that on each side is high and rugged.

FROM SEVEN ISLANDS BAY to *Point aux Pères* there is little to attract attention, except two very extraordinary mountains, close to each other, called the *Paps of Matana*, nearly opposite to which is the bold and lofty promontory of *Monte Pelée*, where the river is little more than 25 miles wide. After passing St. Barnabe Isle the voyager arrives at Bic island (153 miles from Quebec), which is three miles in length, and nearly one in breadth. Good anchorage is found here. The adjoining Seigniory of *Bic* on the main land is very uneven, and mountainous.

¹ Sailing directions for navigators, lat. and long. of head-lands, bearings of light-houses, distances, variations of the compass, and every point a knowledge of which is essential to the mariner in the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, will be found in the large Edition.

Proceeding onwards, several beautiful islands are passed in succession; *Green* and *Red* islands; *Hare* ditto; *Kamouraska* isles, the *Pilgrims*, *Brandy Pots*, and a variety of others, all clothed with wood, and some of them inhabited and cultivated. The *Brandy Pots* cluster is about 103 miles from Quebec. Abreast of *Red* islands, on the N. shore, is situate the mouth of the Saguenay river. The St. Lawrence is here twenty miles wide, with an average depth of twelve fathoms; and the village of *Kamouraska*, in the county and seigniory of the same name, is the watering-place, or Brighton of the Canadians. The mountains on both sides are very high, often terminating in capes or bold headlands, which have a very fine effect; in general, and particularly on the S. side, a low and level tract of land, varying in breadth, intervenes between the river and the mountain range; this tract is cultivated, and the delicious verdure of the corn fields is in strong contrast with the sombre hue of the pine forests in the elevated and overshadowing back-ground. The well-cultivated *Isle aux Coudres* is next visible, and then a very delightful prospect of the settlement of the Bay of *St. Paul*, enclosed within an amphitheatre of very high hills.

The *Isle aux Coudres*, just mentioned, is five miles in length, and fifteen in circumference, about two miles from the N. shore of the St. Lawrence river, nearly opposite the Bay of St. Paul: compared with the neighbouring main it is low, but rises towards the centre. The shore in a few places rises abruptly from the water, covered with a thick creeping shrubbery; in general, however, it is of easy ascent and

extremely picturesque, owing to the number of farms (400) on it. The island was granted in 1687 to the ecclesiastics of the seminary of Quebec, to whom it still belongs. The navigation of the river now becomes difficult, although the breadth is 13 miles, owing to the narrowness of the main ship channel, called the *Traverse*, which is contracted to 1320 yards, by the Isle aux Coudres, the shoal of St. Roch, and English bank. There are two other channels, but the rapidity of the current is much greater in them than in the *Traverse*, and the holding ground bad; however, with a good pilot and a fair wind, there is little or no risk. At the river *du Sud*, which forms a large basin before it disembogues itself into the St. Lawrence, the latter is 11 miles in breadth, and the country assumes a charming aspect, with a succession of villages, churches, telegraph stations, and farm-houses, all coloured white, and producing a dazzling effect, in contrast with the dark woods which clothe the rising grounds in the distance to their very summits; the *coup d'œil* presenting a landscape of interesting variety and beauty. Before arriving at the island of Orleans (four miles N. E. of Quebec), Goose and Crane islands, and many smaller ones (almost all inhabited), are passed. Orleans, or *isle St. Laurent*, 19 miles long, five and a half broad, and containing 69 square miles, divides the river into two channels. The shores incline gradually to the beach, but the land rises to some elevation towards the W. extremity of the isle, which is richly tilled by a population numbering 5,000, who derive much advantage from the rapid sale of their horticultural and

agricultural productions, in the contiguous Quebec markets. The S. channel is always used by ships : the mainland opposite is lofty ; in some places mountainous, but so well cultivated that a large tract in the vicinity of *Rivière du Sud*, which flows from the S. through a picturesque, extensive, fertile and thickly settled country, has long been familiarly called the granary of the Province.

Mr. M'Gregor truly observes, that the river St. Lawrence and the whole country, from the lowest parishes to Quebec, unfold scenery, the magnificence of which, in combination with the most delightful physical beauty, is unequalled in America, and, probably, in the world. As the eminence is ascended, over which the post road passes, or in sailing up or down the St. Lawrence, there are frequently prospects which open a view of from 50 to 100 miles, of a river from 10 to 20 miles in breadth. The imposing features of these vast landscapes consist of lofty mountains, wide valleys, bold headlands, luxuriant forests, cultivated fields, pretty villages and settlements, some of them stretching up along the mountains :—fertile islands, with neat white cottages, rich pastures and well-tended flocks ;—rocky islets, and tributary rivers, some rolling over precipices, and one of them, the Saguenay, like an inland mountain lake, bursting through a perpendicular chasm in the granite chain ; while on the bosom of the St. Lawrence, majestic ships, large brigs, and schooners, either under sail or at anchor, with innumerable pilot boats and river craft, in active motion, charm the mind of the immigrant or traveller.

We now approach the noble-looking capital of Lower Canada, *Quebec*; where the St. Lawrence is only 1314 yards wide, but with a basin formed by the St. Charles river, below the city, of three and three quarters of a mile long, and two broad, with the greatest depth of water at 28 fathoms, and a tide rising 18 feet at neap, and 24 at spring tides. The scenery, on approaching Quebec, is truly magnificent; on the left, point Levi, with its romantic church and cottages; on the right, the western part of Orleans isle, so much resembling our own sweet Devonshire coast; beyond, the lofty mainland opens to view, and the spectator's attention is rivetted by the magnificent falls of Montmorenci, a river as large as the Thames at Richmond, and which precipitates its volume of constantly flowing waters over a perpendicular precipice 220 feet in height: the eye then runs along a richly cultivated country for miles, terminating in a ridge of mountains, with the city and battlements of Quebec, rising amphitheatrically, cresting, as it were, the ridge of Cape Diamond, and majestically towering above the surrounding country, as if destined to be the capital of an empire; the whole panorama being one of the most striking views in the Old or New World.

Before proceeding with the description of the St. Lawrence, we must stop to give a brief notice of this far-famed city.

QUEBEC¹, in lat. 46.48, long. 70.72, is situated

¹ Etymologists have exercised their ingenuity in tracing the origin of this word: some suppose it an Indian word signifying a strait; others are of opinion that it arose from the Normans

upon the N. E. extremity of a rocky ridge or promontory, called Cape Diamond (350 feet above the water's edge), which runs for seven or eight miles to the westward, connected with another Cape called Cape Rouge, forming the lofty and left bank of the river St. Lawrence, which is but for a short space interrupted by a low and flat valley to the N. E., adjoining the level in which the river St. Charles now runs to the N. of the city¹. The N. of the promontory has apparently been chosen as the site of the town, from its more gradual slope on this side than to the southward, which is precipitous. To the N. and W. of the city the ground slopes more gradually, and terminates in the St. Charles valley. The St. Lawrence flows to the southward of the city, washes the base of the steep promontory of

exclaiming when they first beheld the lofty promontory—' *Quel-Bec !*'—It is even said that the city owes its name to a place on the Seine, probably *Caudebec*,—but Hawkins, in his "Picture of Quebec," shows the word to be of Norman origin, and gives an engraving of a seal belonging to William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, dated in the seventh of Henry V., or A.D. 1420. The legend or motto is, "*Sigillum Willielmi de la Pole, Comitum Suffolchiæ, Domini de Hamburg et de Quebec.*" Suffolk was impeached by the Commons of England in 1450, and one of the charges against him was his unbounded influence in Normandy, where he lived and ruled like an independent prince; it is not therefore improbable that he enjoyed the French title of Quebec in addition to his English honours.

¹ This flat channel is supposed by Dr. Wright, Inspector of Hospitals, to have been at some distant period a second channel to the St. Lawrence, which must have insulated the whole of the space, on the N. E. extremity of which the city of Quebec now stands.

Cape Diamond, and unites its waters with the small river St. Charles, flowing along the N. side of the city, the junction being in front of the town, where they expand into a considerable basin forming the harbour of Quebec¹. On sailing up the river, nothing of the city is seen until the spectator is nearly in a line between the W. point of Orleans isle and Point Levi, when (as eloquently expressed by an intelligent and delightful traveller²) Quebec and its surrounding sublimities burst suddenly into view, the grand and vast landscape being so irresistibly striking, that few ever forget the majestically impressive picture it presents. An abrupt promontory 350 feet high, crowned with an impregnable citadel, (the Gibraltar of the New World,) surrounded by strong battlements, on which the British banners proudly wave; the bright tinned steeples of the cathedrals and churches; the huge vice-regal château of St. Louis, supported by piers, and overhanging the precipice³; the denseness of the houses and *hangards* (warehouses) of the lower town; the fleet of ships at Wolf's Cove, and others at the wharfs; steamers plying in every direction; multitudes of boats of every shape; ships on the stocks, or launching; the white sheets of the cataract of Montmorenci tumbling into the St. Lawrence over a 220 feet ledge; the churches, houses, fields and woods of Beauport and Charlesbourg, with mountains in the distance;

¹ The distance from one river to another across the ridge is rather more than a mile.

² John M'Gregor, Esq.

³ This old baronial pile was burnt in 1834.

the high grounds, spire, &c. of St. Joseph; some Indian wigwams and canoes near Point Levi, and vast rafts or masses of timber descending on the noble river from the forests of the Ottawa, may convey some idea of the view unfolded to the traveller who sails up the St. Lawrence, when he first espies the metropolis of the British Empire in North America.

The city is nominally divided into two, called the Upper and Lower towns: the latter being built at the base of the promontory, level with high water, where the rock has been removed to make room for the houses, which are generally constructed in the old style, of stone, two or three stories high. The streets are narrow and ill ventilated. From the Lower to the Upper Town there is a winding street (Mountain-street), extremely steep, which is commanded by judiciously planted cannon, and terminates at an elevation of 200 feet above the river, at the city walls, or 'Break Neck Stairs,' where the Upper Town commences, extending its limits considerably to the westward, along the slope of the ridge, and up the promontory towards the Cape, within 50 or 60 yards of its summit. The aspect is N. and advantageously placed for ventilation, although the streets are narrow and irregular. There are suburbs to each town: in the Upper, they extend along the slope of the ridge called St. John's; in the Lower, they extend along the valley from the St. Charles called the *Rocks*. The influence of the tides, which extend several leagues beyond Quebec, raises the waters at the confluence of the two rivers many feet above their ordinary level,

and overflow the St. Charles valley, which rises gradually from the river to the northward, in a gentle slope for a few miles, until it reaches the mountains. This valley and slope is wholly under cultivation, and extremely rich and picturesque. The ridge on which Quebec stands is also cultivated as far as Cape Rouge to the westward.

In 1662 Quebec did not contain more than 50 inhabitants; in 1759 the population was estimated at between 8 and 9,000; in 1825 and 1831 the census gave as follows:—

		1825.		1831.
		Houses.	Population.	Population.
Upper Town	} Quebec .	480	4,163	4,498
Lower Town		549	3,935	4,933
Suburbs of St. Roch.	. .	1,128	6,273	7,983
St. John.	. .	843	6,025	6,918
St. Louis	. .	120		1,583
Total ¹	.	3,120	20,396	25,916

As a fortress Quebec may be now ranked in the first class, the citadel on the highest point of Cape Diamond, together with a formidable combination of strongly constructed works, extending over an area of 40 acres: small batteries connected by ramparts are continued from the edge of the precipice to the gateway leading to the Lower Town, which is defended by cannon of a large calibre, and the approach to it up Mountain-street enfiladed and flanked by

¹ Exclusive of the Banlieue of St. John and St. Louis.

many large guns : a line of defence connects with the grand battery a redoubt of great strength armed with 24 pounders, entirely commanding the basin and passage of the river. Other lines add to the impregnability of Quebec if properly defended, the possession of which may be said to give the mastery of Upper as well as of Lower Canada¹.

A great number of commodious and elegant public buildings adorn Quebec—such as the Hotel Dieu, the Ursuline Convent, the Jesuits' Monastery (now a barrack), the Protestant and Catholic Cathedrals, the Scotch Church, Lower Town Church, Trinity and Wesleyan Chapels, Exchange, Bank, Court House, Hospitals, Barracks, Gaol, Seminary, &c. &c. The town in general is pretty much like an English or rather a French city, except that the houses are mostly roofed with shingles (small pieces of thin wood) ; many of the best houses, public buildings and great warehouses, are, however, covered with tin or iron plates, which, owing to the dryness of the

¹ On the W., and in front of the citadel, are the celebrated plains of Abraham, on which Wolfe and Montcalm fought and perished, and to whose united memories the chivalry of our own times (under the auspices of the gallant Earl of Dalhousie) has erected an appropriate obelisk with the following inscription :—
' Mortem virtus, communem famam historia, monumentum posteritas dedit. Hanc columnam in virorum illustrium memoriam WOLFE *et* MONTCALM, P. C. Georgius Comes De Dalhousie in Septentrionalis Americæ partibus ad Britannos pertinentibus summam rerum administraus ; opus per multos annos prætermissum, quid duci egregio convenientius ? Auctoritate promovens, exemplo stimulans, munificentia fovens. A S. MDCCCXXVII.—Georgio IV. Britanniarum Rege.'

climate, retain their brightness for many years. There are several distilleries, breweries, tobacco, soap, candle and other manufactories; excellent ships are built here¹, and every variety of tradesmen may be found in the Upper or Lower town. Many of the shops, or, as they are called in America, stores, are stylishly fitted up, and in most of them every variety of goods, from a needle to an anchor, or a ribbon to a cable, is to be found.

We may now proceed onwards up the St. Lawrence, which widens again after having passed Quebec, while the banks gradually lose the elevation observed at Cape Diamond, but are sloping and exquisitely varied with groves, churches, white cottages, orchards and corn-fields, until arriving at Richelieu Rapid, 45 miles above Quebec; thence to Three Rivers (52 miles) there is little variation in the general aspect of the St. Lawrence, the high lands receding to the N. and S. with a low but cultivated country. About six miles above Three Rivers, the St. Lawrence expands itself over a level

¹ On the W. point of Orleans were built the *Columbus* and the *Baron of Renfrew*, those vast leviathans of the deep which human ingenuity contrived to float on its bosom. These ocean castles were strongly framed, timbered and planked as lesser sized vessels, and not put together like rafts, as generally supposed. The length of the *Columbus* on deck was 320 feet, breadth 50, extreme depth 40 feet, and she had four gigantic masts, with every appurtenance in proportion; 3,000 tons weight were put on board of her before launching. It will be remembered that she reached England safely, and was waterlogged on her return: the equally huge *Baron of Renfrew* reached the Thames, and was wrecked off Gravelines.

country, and forms *Lake St. Peter*, extending in length about 20 miles by 15 in breadth, but very shallow. At the head of the delta of the lake, the St. Lawrence receives the comparatively small but beautiful river Richelieu, sometimes called Chambly—at others, Sorel. To Montreal (90 miles from Three Rivers) the scenery is varied rather by the hand of man than by nature; with the exception of numerous alluvial and richly tilled islets, many parts are extremely picturesque and highly cultivated, there being a succession of parishes mostly consecrated to the memory of some saint, and so thickly peopled as to assume the appearance of one continued village, the N. shore, through which the post road passes, being the most populous. The tributary rivers which empty themselves into the St. Lawrence, and which are also settled on, require some notice; before, however, adverting to them, a brief description of Montreal, the second city in the province, may be acceptable.

MONTREAL, in 45.46. N. lat., is situate upon the N. or left bank of the St. Lawrence (160 miles S. W. from Quebec), upon the Southernmost point of an island bearing the same name, and which is formed by the river St. Lawrence on the S., and a branch of the Ottawa, or grand river, on the N. The island is in length from E. to W. 30 miles, and from N. to S. eight miles: its surface is an almost uniform flat, with the exception of an isolated hill or mountain on its W. extremity, which rises from 500 to 800 feet higher than the river level. Along its base, and particularly up its sides, are thickly interspersed corn-

fields, orchards and villas, above which, to the very summit of the mountain, trees grow in luxuriant variety. The view from the top, though wanting in the sublime grandeur of Cape Diamond at Quebec, is romantically picturesque: on the S. the blue hills of Vermont, and around a vast extent of thickly inhabited, cultivated and fertile country, (embellished with woods, waters, churches, cottages and farms,—beneath the placid city of Montreal—its shipping and river craft, and the fortified island of St. Helena, altogether exhibiting a scene of softly luxuriant beauty. Within a mile to the N. W. of the town the range of the mountain gradually declines for a few miles to the W. and N. to the level of the surrounding country. The bank of the river upon which Montreal is built, has a gradual elevation of 20 to 30 feet, sloping again in the rear of the town, where there is a canal to carry off any accumulated water: the land then again undulates to the N. to a higher range. The streets are parallel with the river, and intersect each other at right angles; the houses are for the most part of a greyish stone, covered with sheet iron or tin: many of them are handsome structures, and would be considered as such even in London. Among the principal edifices are the Hôtel Dieu, the Convent of Notre Dame, the General Hospital, the New College, Hôpital général des Sœurs grises, the French Cathedral, English and Scotch Churches, Court House, Government House, Nelson's Monument, Barracks, Gaol, &c. &c. The new Roman Catholic Cathedral is one of the most splendid temples in the *new* world, and only surpassed in the *old* by interior

grandeur. It was commenced in 1824, finished in 1829, and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In length it is 225 feet, breadth 234, and the height of the walls is 112 feet. The architecture is of the rich Gothic of the 13th century. It has six massive towers, between which is a promenade along the roof 25 feet wide, elevated 112 feet. There are seven altars, and the E. window behind the grand altar is 70 feet high by 33 feet broad; the other windows 36 feet by 10. It is surrounded by a fine terrace; and the chime of bells, the clocks, altars, &c. correspond with the magnificent exterior. This splendid structure will accommodate 12,000 persons, who may disperse in six minutes by five public and three private entrances.

In the extent and importance of her trade—in the beauty of her public and private buildings—in the gay appearance of her shops, and in all the external signs of wealth, Montreal far surpasses the metropolitan city of the province. Its population in 1825 was 22,357; and in 1831, 27,297; at present it is about 35,000. The whole island is comprised in one seigniory, and belongs to the priests, who are consequently wealthy, but by no means rigorous in exacting the *lods et ventes* due to them on the transfer of land,—they usually compound for these fines.

The islands contiguous to Montreal have been already described; and being compelled to a rigid economy of space, I proceed to notice the *Ottawa* or Grand River, which falls into the St. Lawrence above Montreal, and forms the north-western boundary of Lower Canada.

THE OTTAWA or GRAND RIVER—has its origin in Lake Temiscaming, upwards of 350 miles N. W. of its junction with the St. Lawrence—reckoning however Lake Temiscaming as but an extension of the Ottawa, in the same manner as we have done Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, &c. with regard to the source of the St. Lawrence, the remotest spot whence the Ottawa issues is more than 100 miles beyond Lake Temiscaming, giving it therefore a course of nearly 500 miles. As before observed, little is known of the country generally beyond the Falls and *Portage des Allumettes*, distant 110 miles above Hull. At the *Allumettes* the Ottawa is divided into two channels, the one to the N. E., the other to the S. W. of a large island, fifteen miles long by four broad : the southerly channel expands below the falls and rapids of the grand *Allumettes* to the width of three or four miles, at the head of which an arm of the river opens an entrance to the Mud and Musk Rat Lakes. Twelve miles further S. the river again forms into two channels, being separated by an island twenty miles in length by seven in breadth : owing to the numerous cascades and falls, the scenery on the Ottawa is here extremely wild and romantic. For ten miles, from the Cascades to the foot of the Chenaux, the Ottawa is singularly diversified by numerous beautiful islands, richly clad with trees of luxuriant foliage. Clustered in various parts of the river, these islands divide the stream into as many channels, through which the waters are impelled with a degree of violence proportioned to the narrowness of their beds, and contribute to heighten the

beauty of the landscape, the effect of which is not a little enhanced by the banks of the Ottawa being here composed of white marble, which can be traced for two or three miles along the margin of the stream. This delightful district is now being colonized, and the grateful soil repays with abundance the toil of the cultivators.

The GATINEAU rises in some large lakes far in the interior, traverses Hull, and falls into the Ottawa about half a mile farther down. It is navigable for steam-boats five miles from its mouth—it then becomes rapid for fifteen miles, and is used for turning several mills ; then it is navigable for 300 miles for canoes, &c. traversing an immense and interesting vale, full of natural riches, and abounding in views of the wildest and most romantic interest.

At the foot of the *Chenau* the magnificent Lake *des Chats* opens to view,—in its extreme length fifteen miles and in mean breadth one, but with its N. shore so deeply indented by several sweeping bays, as to extend the *Chats* at times to three miles in width. The richly wooded islets which stud the lake, add to the natural beauties of the sweetly soft scenery of the peculiarly glassy and beautiful Ottawa. Kinnel Lodge, the hospitable residence of the celebrated Highland chieftain Mac Nab, is romantically situated on the S. bank of the lake, about five miles above the head of the Chat rapids, which are three miles long, and pass amidst a labyrinth of varied islands, until the waters of the Ottawa are suddenly precipitated over the falls of the Chats, which to the number of fifteen or sixteen form a curved line across

the river regularly divided by woody islands, the falls being in depth from sixteen to twenty feet. From the Chats to Lake Chaudiere (six miles) the Ottawa contracts its channel, but expands again to form this beautiful basin, which is eighteen miles long by five broad; the southern shores (forming a part of Upper Canada) are more bold, elevated, and better settled than the northern, which are within the province of Lower Canada.

At the S. E. end of the lake, rapids again impede the navigation, and continue successively from the head of *Rapides des Chénes* to the Chaudiere falls at Hull township. Above the falls, the Ottawa is 500 yards wide, and its scenery agreeably embellished by numerous small grove-clad islets, rising here and there amidst the waters as they gently ripple by, or rush on with more or less violence to the vortex of those broken, irregular, and extraordinary chasms, the *Great* and *Little Kettle* or Chaudiere. The principal falls are sixty feet in height by 212 feet in width,—they are situate near the centre of the river, and attract by their forcible indraught a considerable proportion of the Ottawa's waters, which are strongly compressed by the circular shape of the rock that forms the boiling recipient;—beneath, the foaming heavy torrents struggle violently to escape, rising into clouds of spray, and ascending at intervals in revolving columns of mist high above the cataract's surface. In the great Chaudiere or Kettle, the sounding line has not found bottom at 300 feet deep, and it is supposed that there are subterraneous passages to convey the immense mass of water be-

neath the river ; in fact, half a mile down it comes boiling up again from the Kettles¹.

It is across these singular falls that the celebrated Union Bridges which connect Upper and Lower Canada have been thrown, and they certainly combine, with the greatest possible effect, ingenious works of art with objects of natural grandeur and sublimity. The chain consists of four principal parts, two of which are truss bridges, overhanging the channels, and unsupported by piers ; a third is a straight wooden bridge, and a fourth is built partly of dry stone (with two cut lime-stone arches) and partly of wood.

The truss bridge over the broadest channel is 212 feet long, thirty feet wide, and forty above the surface of the Ottawa. The construction of these bridges was, as may well be supposed, attended with considerable difficulty.

Below the Chaudiere-falls and Union Bridges, the Ottawa has an uninterrupted navigation for steam-boats to Grenville, sixty miles distant. The current is gentle, the river banks low and generally flooded in spring to a considerable distance, especially on the N. or Lower Canada side ; but though the scenery is tame, it is always pleasing, and, as described by Colonel Bouchette, (to whom I repeat, I am indebted for much valuable and interesting information) the frequently varying width of the river—its numerous islands—the luxuriant foliage of its banks ; objects

¹ It has been said, that a cow one morning was carried over the fall, tumbled with the Cataract into the *Little Kettle*, and came up hale and well at Fox point, ten miles down the river !

ever changing their perspective combinations as the steamer moves along—and an infant settlement appearing here and there on the skirts of the forest, and the margin of the stream, are all in themselves possessed of sufficient interest to destroy the monotonous flatness upon this part of ‘Ottawa’s tide.’

At Grenville, commences the impetuous rapid termed the *Long Sault*, which is only stemmed or descended by *voyageurs*, or raftsmen of experienced skill and energy. Below Long Sault the Ottawa continues at intervals, rapid and unnavigable as far as Point Fortune, (immediately opposite the E. outline of Chatham) where it expands into the lake of the Two Mountains, and finally forms a junction with the St. Lawrence river below the cascades, where the black hue of the waters of the Ottawa strongly contrasts with the blueish green of those of St. Lawrence, and renders the line of confluence distinctly visible.

A few other rivers of Lower Canada, which empty themselves into the St. Lawrence, require to be briefly noticed.

Proceeding from the Ottawa down the St. Lawrence on the northern shore, we arrive at the large river—

ST. MAURICE or THREE RIVERS, which, although of inconsiderable depth, is inferior in size only to the Ottawa and Saguenay. The *St. Maurice* drains an extent of country more than 140 miles in length, and 20 to 100 in breadth, equivalent to 8,400 square miles. The source of the stream is a large lake called *Oskelanaio*, near the skirts of the N. W. ridge of

mountains. The course is generally from N. to S. inclining a little to the eastward, and receiving many tributary rivers and lakes in its progress.

Among the former are the Kasikan, Pisnay, Ribbon, Windigo, Vermillion, Bastonais, Aux Rats, Mat-touin and Shawanegan. After passing the falls of the latter river, the St. Maurice turns again to the south, and falls into the St. Lawrence below the town of Three Rivers, forming several islands at its mouth. The banks of the St. Maurice are generally high, and covered with large groups of fine majestic trees; navigation for boats is practicable for thirty-eight leagues to La Tuque, with the exception of the portages. At Wemontichinque in 47 N. the St. Maurice is divided into three branches, and up the W. branch is a most extraordinary chain of lakes and navigable waters, the number of which is estimated at twenty-three, varying in size and depth, the latter being in many places forty fathoms. There are about fourteen small islands of different sizes in various parts of the St. Maurice, and there are a variety of falls and cascades of greater or less extent. Those of Grand Mère, about four miles above the Hêtres fall or cascade, are extremely beautiful, and have a perpendicular descent of 30 feet. The stupendous falls of the Shawanegan, six and a half miles lower than the Hêtres, are magnificent, the fall being 150 feet perpendicular; and the river rushing with terrific violence in two channels against the face of the cliff below, the channels are again united, and the vast and foaming torrent forces its way through a narrow passage not more than thirty yards wide. Before

quitting the St. Maurice, it may be proper to observe, that the large river *Aux Lievres*, which has a course of upwards of 150 miles to the Ottawa, anastomoses with the St. Maurice, by means of the extraordinary chain of lakes (of which Lake Kempt is the principal) above described.

CHAMPLAIN RIVER deserves a separate notice, owing to a particular event. It rises in the Seigniory of Cap de la Magdelaine, running N. E. it traverses the country to Champlain, enters Batiscan, where it turns S., and forming the boundary between the latter seigniory and Champlain, it falls into the St. Lawrence. An extraordinary circumstance is stated to have occurred on this river's banks a few years ago, which reminds us of the *moving bogs* in Ireland. A large tract of land containing a superficies of 207 arpents was instantaneously moved 360 yards, from the edge of the water, and precipitated into the river, which it dammed up to a distance of twenty-six arpents, and, by obstructing the waters, caused them to swell to an extraordinary height: this singular event was accompanied by an appalling sound; a dense vapour, as of pitch and sulphur, filled the atmosphere, oppressing the neighbouring inhabitants almost to suffocation. My authority for this statement is Col. Bouchette; it appears to be a corroborating proof of the truth of the great earthquake in 1663, as detailed in the geology of the country.

CHAUDIERE River, rising from Lake Megantic, waters a country of 100 miles in length, and about 30 in breadth, thus clearing nearly 3,000 square

miles of territory of its redundant waters : in breadth it varies from 400 to 600 yards ; the stream is frequently divided by islands, some of them containing many acres, and covered with timber trees. The banks of the Chaudiere are in general high, rocky, and steep, thickly clothed with wood ; the bed of the river is rugged, and often much contracted by rocks jutting out from the sides, which occasion violent rapids ; one of the most celebrated of these is about four miles from its mouth. Narrowed by salient points, extending from each side, the precipice over which the waters rush is scarcely more than 130 yards in breadth, and the height from which the water descends as many feet ; huge masses of rock, rising above the surface of the current at the break of the fall, divide the stream into three portions, forming partial cataracts, that unite before they reach the basin which receives them below. The continued action of the water has worn the rock into deep excavations, which give a globular figure to the revolving bodies of brilliant white foam ; the spray, quickly spread by the wind, produces in the sunshine a splendid variety of prismatic colours, while the dark-hued foliage on either side, pressing close on the margin of the river, forms a striking contrast with the snow-like effulgence of the falling torrent ; indeed, few falls can be compared with those of Chaudiere for picturesque beauty, and they are frequently visited by the colonists or passing strangers.

RICHELIEU River, called also *Chambly*, *Sorel*, *St. Louis* and *St. John*, deserves consideration, as affording a quick and easy water communication from the

United States territory (*via* Lake Champlain) into the heart of Canada. Its principal origin is in the United States, and estimating its length from the south point of Lake George to the termination at Sorel or William Henry Town, on the banks of the St. Lawrence, it cannot be less than 160 miles—the medium extent of tract watered being thirty miles, thus draining a surface of 4,800 square miles; only a portion of which lies within the province of British America, the distance from the boundary line to the mouth of the river being about seventy miles out of the 160.

The banks of the river are generally from eight to twelve feet high, diversified on each side by many farms and extensive settlements, in a high state of improvement; on or near it are neat, populous, and flourishing villages, handsome churches, numerous mills of various kinds, good roads in all directions, and every characteristic of a prosperous country. From its junction with the St. Lawrence, decked vessels of 150 tons may ascend from twelve to fifteen miles, then the navigation is carried on by boats, canoes, rafts, and craft of large dimensions. The breadth of the bed at its mouth is 250 yards, which it preserves with a few exceptions, occasioned by some small and beautiful islands, up to Chambly basin, which is an expansion of the river nearly circular, about a mile and a half in diameter, embellished by several little islands, and covered with fine verdure and natural wood, as ornamentally disposed as if regulated by the hand of art. From the basin of Chambly to the *Isle du Portage* the breadth is 500 yards—beyond this it spreads to double that distance,

and continues to widen still more or less to St. John's, where there is a ship navigation to the towns on *Lake Champlain*¹.

MONTMORENCI river and falls cannot be passed over without notice. The river rises in *Lac des Neiges*: its earlier course is small, but from its origin to its embouchure it is little better than a continued current, until it forms the celebrated cataract of Montmorenci, where its breadth is from sixteen to twenty yards, and the height of the fall 250 feet, being 100 more than the Niagara. A little declination of the bed of the river before it reaches the fall, gives a great velocity to the stream, which is precipitated over the brink of the perpendicular rock in an extended sheet of a fleecy appearance resembling snow. An immense spray rises from the bottom in curling vapours, displaying, as observed with reference to the Chaudière falls, an inconceivably beautiful variety of prismatic colours.

¹ Lake Champlain, so called from the distinguished Frenchman who discovered it in 1609, lies between Vermont and New York; its whole length from Whitehall at its S. extremity to its termination, 24 miles N. of the Canada line, is 128 miles, with a breadth varying from one to sixteen miles (mean width five miles), and covering a surface of about 600 square miles. The outlet of the lake is the Richelieu River above described. There are above sixty islands of different sizes in the lake, the principal of which are the N. and S. Hero and Isle Lamotte. N. Hero, or Grand Island, is twenty-four miles long and from two to four wide. Lake Champlain has a depth sufficient for the largest vessels; half the rivers and streams which rise in Vermont fall into it, and it receives at Ticonderago the waters of Lake St. George from the S.S.W., which is said to be 100 feet higher than the waters of Lake Champlain. It is well stored with fish.

I will not detain the reader by any more details respecting the numerous rivers that empty themselves into the St. Lawrence, after noticing the SAGUENAY, which is a very remarkable river, and deserving the attention of the tourist or scientific traveller. It rises in Lake St. John¹, and flows 108 miles before its junction with the St. Lawrence, which takes place 100 miles below Quebec. The course of the Saguenay is interrupted by foaming torrents, and its width, though always considerable, varies much like the other N. American rivers; the depth at its mouth in mid-channel has not been ascertained: Captain Martin could not find bottom with 330 fathoms of line²; two miles higher, soundings 140 fathoms, and at seventy miles from the St. Lawrence, soundings of from fifty to sixty fathoms. Thirty rivers pour their tributary waters into the Saguenay, many of them navigable for large boats. The banks of this noble stream vary from 200 to 2000 feet in height, rising in some places vertically from the river's side; the scenery throughout being wildly magnificent. As far up as *Chicoutimi* (75 miles from its mouth), the bases of the lofty and sometimes scantily wooded mountains of granite are

¹ Situate between the parallels 48.27. to 48.51. N. lat. and 71.35. to 72.10. W. long.; about 100 miles in circumference and nearly circular.

² It has been stated since that a ridge of rocks, below the surface of the water, lies across the Saguenay's mouth, through which there is a channel 120 feet deep; within this the depth increases to 840 feet, so that the bed of the Saguenay is absolutely 600 feet below that of the St. Lawrence, into which it falls. Its reported terrific whirlpools are fabulous.

laved on both sides by its waters. The *Point aux Bouleaux*, and the land for some distance on the W. side of its mouth, are alluvial deposits, containing probably the richest soil in the world, being composed of a species of soapy-grey marl, from thirty to forty feet deep. Sixty miles from the mouth of the Saguenay (where the port of Tadoussac is situate in lat. 48.5, long. 69.37.), is a very remarkable harbour, called *Bay de Has*, or *Ha-Ha Bay*, capable of affording shelter to the largest ships of the line, which may sail directly into the bay with the same wind that brought them within its entrance. This remarkable bay is from seven to nine miles in length, and two and a half in width, with good anchorage varying from fifteen to thirty-five fathoms. Bay de Has opens into another bay or basin. Vast tracts of arable land, with a rich soil of blue and grey marl, surround these singular bays, extending to Lake Kiguagomi and Chicoutimi, with which a water communication may readily be opened, avoiding the circuitous route by the Chicoutimi river.

As the great Canadian lakes¹ will come under the

¹ I may here allude to two lakes in Lower Canada, Matapediac and Memphramagog. The former is about sixteen miles long, and three broad in its greatest breadth; about twenty-one miles distant from the St. Lawrence river in the co. of Rimouski, amidst the islands that separate the waters running into the St. Lawrence from those that run to the Bay of Chaleurs, it is navigable for rafts of all kinds of timber, with which the banks of the noble river Matapediac are thickly covered. Memphramagog Lake in the co. of Stanstead, stretching its S. extremity into the state of Vermont, is of a semi-circular shape, thirty miles long and very narrow. It empties itself into the fine river St. Francis, by

topographical description of Upper Canada, I close this section with the following enumeration of the chief rivers and lakes on either side of the St. Lawrence, which will demonstrate how well irrigated this fine country is ; but in order that this division of the rivers and lakes may be better understood, I give here the divisions of the province, reserving for the chapter on population a more minute subdivision of the territory into counties, &c.

The district of Quebec (including Anticosti and other islands) extends along the St. Lawrence 826 miles, is in depth inland 360, and contains 127,949 superficial square miles. Montreal (including islands) 110 along the St. Lawrence, 310 inland, and 54,802 superficial square miles. Three Rivers (including St. Francis and islands) 52 along the St. Lawrence, 320 inland, and 15,823 superficial square miles. Gaspé peninsula (including islands) 80 along the St. Lawrence, 200 inland, and 7,289 superficial square miles. Total superficies in square miles, 205,863.

QUEBEC DISTRICT.—(Rivers.) *N. of St. Lawrence* : St. Anne, Jaques Cartier, Batiscan, St. Charles, Montmorenci, Gouffre, Mal Bay, Black River, Saguenay, Belsianite, St. John, St. Anne, L., Portneuf. *S. of St. Lawrence* : Chaudiere, part of, Etchemin, Du Sud, Du Loup, Greenriver, Rimouski, Trois Pistoles, Mitis, Tartigo, Matane, Madawaska, St. Francis, part of, St. John, part of.—(Lakes.) *N. of St. Lawrence* : St. John's, Commissioners, Quaquagamack, Wayagamac, Bouchette, Kajoulwang, Ontaratri, St. Charles, Chawgis, Assuapmoussin, Shecoubish. *S. of St. Lawrence* : Temiscouta, Matapediac, Mitis, Abaw-

means of the river Magog, which runs through Lake Scaswaninepus. The Memphramagog Lake is said to be navigable for ships of 500 tons burthen.

sisquash, Longlake, Pitt, Trout, William, St. Francis, McTavish, Macanamack.

MONTREAL DISTRICT.—(Rivers.) *N. of St. Lawrence*: Gatineau, Lievres, Petite Nation, Rivière Blanche, Rivière Du Nord, Mascouche, Achigan, L'Assomption, Lachenaye, Berthier, Chaloupe, Du Chêne. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Richelieu, Sorel, Yamaska and branches, Pike, Montreal L., Chateauguay and branches, Lacolle, Magog, Coaticook, Missiskoni.—(Lakes.) *N. of St. Lawrence*: White Fish, Sabbls, Killarney, Temiscaming, Lievres, Le Roque, Rocheblanc, Pothier, Nimicachinigue, Papineau, Maskinongé. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Memphramagog, Tomefobi, Missiskoui Bay, Scaswaninepus pt., Yamaska Bay, St. Louis, Two Mountains, St. Francis, Chaudiere, Chats, Allumets.

THREE RIVERS DISTRICT.—(Rivers.) *N. of St. Lawrence*: St. Maurice and Branches, Baticcan pt., Champlain, Du Loup G. and L., Maskinonge, Machiches. *S. of St. Lawrence*: St. Francis and branches, Nicolet and do., Becancour, Gentilly, Yamaska, part of.—(Lakes.) *N. of St. Lawrence*: O'Cananshing, Matawin, Goldfinch, Shasawataiata, Montalagoose, Oskelanaio, Crossways, Perchaudes, Blackbeaver, Bewildered. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Nicolet, St. Francis, point of, Megautie, St. Paul, Outardes, Blacklake, Connecticut, Weedon, Scaswaninepus pt., St. Peter.

The vast territory embraced in the province of Upper Canada, as regards the *inhabited* parts, is in general a level champaign country; for, from the division line on Lake St. Francis to Sandwich, a distance of nearly 600 miles westerly, nothing like a mountain occurs, although the greater part of the country is gently undulated into pleasing hills, fine slopes, and fertile valleys: but a ridge of rocky country runs north-east and south-westerly through the Newcastle and Midland districts, towards the Ottawa or Grand River, at the distance of from fifty

to one hundred miles from the north shore of Lake Ontario and the course of the River St. Lawrence. Passing this ridge to the north, the explorer descends into a wide and rich valley of great extent, which is again bounded on the north by a rocky and mountainous country, of still higher elevation.

Farther to the north, beyond the French river which falls into Lake Huron, are immense mountains, some of them of great but unknown elevation.

The country on the north and west side of Lake Ontario, and of Lake Erie which is still further west, continues flat as far as Lake Huron, with only occasional moderate elevations of the surface of easy ascent. In the whole extent of this tract of country, there is but a small portion of it under cultivation, the remainder being in its primitive state of forests, lakes, and rivers; the latter for the most part falling into the great lakes, or into larger rivers, which again empty themselves into the great artery of the country, the St. Lawrence. The settlements are chiefly confined to the borders, or within a few miles of the borders of the great lake and rivers. In order to convey a clear idea of the physical aspect of the province, it will be necessary to proceed at once to a description of its vast inland seas.

LAKES OF UPPER CANADA.—The lakes of Upper Canada are innumerable: a few of those best known are as follow (Superior and Ontario are unfathomable in the centre):—

Names.	Length.	Breadth.	Circumference.	Average depth.	Above the Sea.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Feet.	Feet.
Superior	541	140	1225	1000	627
Huron	250	190	1100	860	594
Michigan	260	90	1000		ditto
Erie	280	63	700	250	564
Ontario	180	80	500	500	234
Simcoe	40	30	120		710
St. Clair	35	30	100	20	
George	25		58		
Rice Lake	24	2 to 5	58		599

Superior, called also *Keetcheegahmi* and *Missisawgaiegon*, the largest and most elevated of those singular seas which in Canada seem to occupy or supply the place that great mountains do in other countries, is situate between the meridians of 92.19 and 84.18 west longitude, and the parallels of 49.1 and 46.26 north latitude¹, and in the form of an irregular oblong basin, about 1,255 geographical miles in circumference, in length from east to west on a curved line through its centre 541 miles², in its extreme breadth

¹ The variation of the magnetic needle is from 2.42. to 12.18. east; the dip at Fort William is 77.58., and the variation there 9.5. east, the latter increasing gradually from the east to the west extremity of the lake, being greatest near the grand portage and Isle Royale; but the needle (according to the scientific Captain Bayfield, R. N. who has written a valuable paper on the geology of this lake) is very much disturbed in many places by the magnetic nature of the oxydes of iron which enter into the composition of many of the rocks.

² This measurement commences from Point Iroquois, at the mouth of the River St. Mary, (communicating with Lake Huron,) passes on the outskirts of all bays, (except their breadth rendered

(opposite Peak Island) 140 geographical miles with a depth actually measured of from 80 to 150 fathoms and without soundings in its centre; the waters always extremely cold, as pure and clear as any in the world, and devoid of tides, or any other kind of periodical rise and fall. During heavy gales of wind, the waters of this, and the other great lakes, are raised into ocean-like waves¹, with currents in various directions: on the breaking up of the winter snows and ice, the waters of the lakes are higher than at any other times, while it is a prevalent opinion that there is a gradual diminution of the waters of Superior, Huron, Ontario, &c. as shown by their banks. [See Geology.]

This monarch of the lakes in the Old or New World, is placed to the south of, and near to the ridge of high lands, which stretching from the rocky mountains to Lake Superior, in broad diluvial plains and undulations, divides the waters, flowing into the Mexican gulf, from those of Hudson's Bay; and proceeding from Lake Superior eastward to the Coast of Labrador, in a continuous range of hills, constitutes the north dividing range of the valley of

the crossing dangerous,) and circumnavigating Point Keewannoonan, terminates at the mouth of the river St. Louis at the Fond du Lac.

¹ The sea (if it may be so termed) on Lake Ontario is so high during a sharp gale, that it was at first thought the smaller class steam-boats could not live it; and on Lake Superior, the waves almost rival those of the far-famed cape of storms, while the ground swell, owing to the comparative shallowness, or little specific gravity of the fresh water, is such as to make the oldest sailor sick.

the St. Lawrence, as described under Lower Canada. From near the west-end of the lake, this ridge is lost to the south, and in the elevations of the United States, still affording a connected series of successively descending levels for the St. Lawrence, its Lakes, and vast tributaries, the Ottawa, Saguenay, &c.

The surface of Superior is 617 feet *above*—and the bottom of its basin (so far as we can estimate its sounding) upwards of 500 feet *below* the level of the Atlantic ocean, and $52\frac{1}{2}$ feet above Lake Erie : it receives 220 tributary rivers and streams, which pour into the lake a greater volume of water than makes its exit at the only outlet (the falls of St. Mary, which connects Superior with Lake Huron); the water discharged into Huron, being far less in quantity than that poured into Superior from numerous rivers, in order to supply the immense evaporation continually going on.

The length of the American shore of Lake Superior from the mouth of the Ontonagon is 500 miles ; the Canadian coast is estimated at 1200 miles in length. Some of the rivers on the S. coast are 153 miles long ; the principal of these—the Ontonagon or Coppermine, Montreal, Mauvaise, Boisbrule, and St. Louis—communicate with the Mississippi.

Numerous islands exist in various parts of the lake, some of considerable size ; *Isle Royale* is 45 miles long by 7 or 8 broad, lying in north-east and south-west direction ; Caribou is about 6 miles in circumference, and the Islands of the Twelve Apostles are 23 in number, with perpendicular cliffs of sandstone on the north and south-east, 60 feet in height.

At *Les Portailles* and Grand Island, there are perpendicular cliffs broken into the most beautiful and picturesque arches (under some of which a boat can pass), porticos, columns, and caverns of immense dimensions.

The shores of Lake Superior (whose direction is east and west) are in several places rocky, considerably elevated, with occasional large sandy bays¹, and jetting bold promontories : the great promontory or peninsula of Keewanonan, dividing it into two equal sections, is very high at its central part, consisting of steep conical granite hills, 1000 feet above the lake. Of the country around Lake Superior, whether on the American or on the British territory, we have but an imperfect knowledge ; there is a great extent of hill and dale, and in some places, what in Upper Canada may be termed mountains, ranges of 1500 feet above the level of the lake, and consequently 2100 feet above the ocean².

At *Gros-Cap* (where Lake Superior is entered, from the River St. Mary, which connects it with Lake Huron) the prospect is not only beautiful but magnificent, when aided by considerations of the remoteness, magnitude, and celebrity of this vast body of water ; the spectator standing beneath the shattered crags 300 feet high, has before him an almost boundless flood, which, if it burst its barriers, would over-

¹ It is sandy from Point Iroquois to the pictured rocks, then rocky to the foot of the Fond du Lac, with occasional plains of sand.

² The Porcupine mountains, 200 feet high, approach the Lake on the south-shore in long. 90.

whelm a continent: in the front a low island, on the south, Point Iroquois declining from a high tabular hill, and on the N. W. a picturesque and elevated country is dimly seen in the distance.

The line of rocky hills constituting the north shore of Lake Superior consists of rocks and crags, piled upon each other to the height of 150 or 200 feet at the north end, and about 400 to 450 feet at the south end, where they dip into the lake, from an elevation of 300 feet, in advanced broken scraps, lowering successively on each other. Along the east shore of the lake from Gros Cap to the River Michipicoton (125 miles) are several promontories, and beautiful bays and rivers; among these are Batchewine and Huggewong Bays, off the mouth of which latter is the island termed Montreal, or Hoguart. The west end of Lake Superior termed, *Fond du Lac*, is a slowly contracting *cul de sac* commencing in Long. 91. at the promontory opposite the Twelve Apostles Isles, running 80 miles in length, with a breadth of eight to ten miles at the bottom.

There are 139 rivers¹ and creeks on the whole of the south shore, but fewer in the east than in the western division. Some of the mountains near the lake, such as *Thunder Mountain*, rise to the height of 1400 feet: this latter is of considerable breadth, several miles long, and almost tabular at the west, with the east or other half irregular and hummocky. In general, the hills have flat pine-clad summits,

¹ The river St. Louis is 150 yards broad at its mouth, but expands immediately into a sheet of water five or six miles wide, extending inland 23 miles of varying breadth.

giving variety to the prospect. The *pictured* rocks (so called from their appearance) are situate on the south side of the lake, towards the east end, and are really quite a natural curiosity; they form a perpendicular wall, 300 feet high, extending about 12 miles, with numerous projections and indentations in every variety of form, and vast caverns, in which the entering waves make a jarring and tremendous sound. Mr. Schoolcraft describes the pictured rocks of Lake Superior as “surprising groups of overhanging precipices, towering walls, caverns, waterfalls, and prostrate ruins, which are mingled in the most wonderful disorder, and burst upon the view in ever-varying and pleasing succession.” Among the more remarkable objects are the Cascade *La Portaille* and the Doric Arch; the cascade consists of a considerable stream, precipitated from a height of 70 feet by a single leap into the lake, and projected to such a distance that a boat may pass beneath the fall and the rock, perfectly dry.

The Doric Arch has all the appearance of a work of art, and consists of an isolated mass of sandstone, with four pillars supporting an entablature of stone, covered with soil, and a beautiful grove of pine and spruce trees, some of which are 60 feet in height.

The lake is subject to storms, sudden transitions of temperature, and dense fogs and mists. The mean heat for June is 66° and for July 64° , and of the lake 61° ; but the winter is terribly severe and long. The usual forest trees are white and yellow pine, oak, hemlock, spruce, birch, poplar, with a mixture of elm, maple, and ash, upon some of the rivers' banks.

It remains only to be added, that the waters of Lake Superior are very transparent, that their lower strata never gain the temperature of summer, for a bottle sunk to the depth of 100 feet in July, and there filled, is, when brought to the surface, like ice water. It abounds with trout (weighing from 12lbs. to 50lbs. weight), sturgeon, and white fish large in proportion, together with pike, pickerel, carp, bass, herring, and numerous other species.

The St. Mary's River or Strait, which connects Lake Superior with Lake Huron, is about 60 miles long¹.

The great rapids, by which travellers usually enter Lake Superior, are termed the falls of St. Mary, in length about three-quarters of a mile by half a mile in breadth, the river being here narrowed by a broad tongue of land, protruding from the north shore, and affording a site for the store-houses of the Hudson Bay Company; they are fifteen miles from Lake Superior, in 46.31 north latitude, with a descent of twenty-two feet ten inches in 900 yards. The rapids are swift flowing billows and broken whitened waters, hurried with velocity over a slope of ledges and huge boulder stones, through a thickly wooded country, whose want of elevation, on either shore, has permitted the formation on each side of a number of islets, divided by channels, which are narrow on the left but much wider on the right bank; the beds and their sides are lined with large rolled

¹ Some persons think a subterraneous communication exists between all the great lakes, as is surmised to be the case between the Mediterranean and Euxine.

masses, similar to those found in Superior and Huron. The right bank of the rapid varies from 10 to 50 feet in height, composed of light alluvial earth; this acclivity is more distant on the Canadian shore. The St. Mary extends above the rapids about fifteen miles through a low well-wooded country, and its bed is from one mile to one mile and a half wide. The current ceases to be felt by boats two miles above the rapids. Immediately below the rapids, the St. Mary widens to upwards of a mile.

Lake Huron, the third from the Atlantic ocean¹, of the great chain of lakes which occupy the four *plateaux* of the upper part of the valley of St. Lawrence, is of a very irregular shape; in length 250 miles, by 190 miles in breadth, with a depth of 860

¹ Lakes Huron and Michigan are parts of the same body of water, separated only by the strait of Michilimacina, but as Michigan is entirely claimed by the United States, it does not come within my notice. I may, however, observe, that it is 160 miles long, by 55 broad, and 800 miles in circumference, covering an area of 16,200 square miles, or 10,368,000 acres, and navigable for ships of the largest burthen. Green Bay extends from the N. end of the lake 90 miles in a S.W. direction, with a width of from 15 to 20 miles. Across its entrance is a chain of islands, called the Grand Traverse, the channels between which admit vessels of 200 tons burthen, and sloops of this size can ascend to the head of this extensive bay. From the bottom of Green Bay, boats can ascend the Ontagamis or Fox River, to within two miles of the Oniscousin, to the head of which a portage is made, and a descent can thence be made to the Mississippi. The tributaries of Michigan are extremely numerous, some of them full flowing rivers, but, so far as we know, none are of any great length.

feet, a height, on its surface above the ocean level, of 590 feet; and covering an area of 5,000,000 acres. Along the north shores of this beautiful inland sea, stretch a chain of islands (the *Manitoulin*, or Sacred Isles) from east to west, the distance, curved, of 125 miles (direct distance between the extremes 97 miles); many of them from 25 to 30 miles long, by 10, 12, and even 55 broad.

Drummond Island (one of the Manitoulins) is 24 miles long, and from 2 to 12 broad, ranging nearly east, and at the west end approaching the main land of the United States, where it forms the strait of the *True Detour*, the principal commercial route to Lake Superior; the strait is scarcely a mile wide, and bounded by two promontories; the coast of the United States is here flat and woody, with morasses,—that of the island is irregular, and covered with large masses of rock. In the higher and middle parts of Drummond Isle, the elevation is from 200 to 250 feet, inclining on either side to the water, often presenting low white precipices, in broken lines, on the summit or sides of the slopes; the south coast of the island is broken into small but deep bays, with shoal points; and those on the west containing many islets,—one of which (according to the intelligent gentleman to whom I am indebted for many observations on Lake Huron¹) has an immense deposit of iron pyrites: the north coast is distinguished by the magnitude of its bays, and the groups of islands which cover the contiguous waters. This coast is terminated on the east, in the strait

¹ Dr. Bigsby.

called *False Detour*, by a calcareous precipice of considerable beauty, 500 yards long, and 250 feet high; at the top it is a terrace of rock, below it is separated from the lake by a narrow and high beach. This singular island produces very fine maple, of the bird's eye and curled kinds, pines, cedar, hemlock, poplar, and birch.

The *False Detour*, which separates Drummond Island from the little *Manitoulin* (or Cockburn Island), is from 8 to 10 miles long, and from 3 to 6 miles wide, with a middle depth seldom less than 40 fathoms; the opening from the south is spacious and bold, with three fine capes on the west, and one on the east. At the north outlet, the shores are very much rounded, with precipices on the west, and woody steeps to the east: in front, is that part of Lake Huron termed the North Channel, studded with a few islets in pairs, and terminated in the distance by the mis-shapen hills of the north main; on the north-west is a blue waving line of the heights of St. Joseph, and on the north-east the looming of the isles at the foot of the La Cloche is just visible.

Little Manitoulin observes an east course, is of a rounded form, with a diameter of seven or eight miles, and with features somewhat similar, though more elevated, than Drummond Isle: the shores are loaded with successive banks or stairs of small debris, with here and there terraces of limestone, *in situ*; inland, the surface ascends rugged, with protruding strata rolled in primitive masses, and not unfrequently intersected by short ledges, which often

crown the greatest heights, affording a table land of small extent, and well wooded.

Between the *Little* and *Grand Manitoulin* is the third Detour, eight miles long by four broad, with high shores, and clear at both outlets.

The *Grand Manitoulin*, or “Sacred¹” Isle, is 75 miles long, and, in some places, 25 miles broad, but deeply indented by bays, which nearly divide the island; its general features are similar to those of the two preceding named islands, only it is higher, abounds more in precipices, and is rugged throughout. At the west, its features are more majestic than is observable in any other part of Lake Huron. At the north end of the third *detour*, its shores are lined with ranges of shingle, supported behind by an ascending country of woods; towards the centre of this strait, ledges and low precipices begin to appear along the beach, soon rising to the height of 250 feet, crowned with cedars and pines: these ledges either rise perpendicularly, or are formed of enormous piles of displaced masses, from seven to ten yards in diameter, sloping at a high angle, sometimes advancing into the waters of the lake, and affording a hazardous passage over their slippery sides, under arches and through winding passages. Near the south-east angle of the Detour, a bluff pre-

¹ The Indian appellation of “sacred isles” first occurs at Lake Huron, and thence westward is met with Superior, Michigan, and the vast and numerous lakes of the interior. Those who have been in Asia, and have turned their attention to the subject, will recognise the resemblance in sound between the N.A. Indian and Tartar names.

cipice, 40 feet high, protrudes into the water, skirted by very large cubic masses of rock,—of which masses the bluff is composed. Out of these natural precipices arise clumps of beautiful trees, and knolls of flowering shrubs, shadowed in the back ground by the dense gloom of impenetrable forests.

The other islands in the Manitoulin chain require no separate notice, if we except those singularly shaped insulated rocks called the *Flower Pots*, six miles S.S.E. of the fourth Manitoulin, one of which rises 47 feet high, and consists of large tabular masses placed *horizontally* one upon the other, narrow below, but broad as they ascend to the summit,—the whole standing on a floor of rock projecting into the lake from the lofty island which bears their name. *Cabot's Head* is a singular-looking headland, in *Michipocoton*, or Georgiana Bay, consisting of indented limestone bluffs, rising to the height of 300 feet, and skirted by numerous reefs and islets, and to the south-west presenting a continued range of calcareous precipices.

Before proceeding further south on this beautiful and extraordinary lake, we must observe the shores of the Huron, between the Manitoulins and the Chippawa hunting country. From the French River (which connects Lake *Nipissing* with Lake Huron) westward to the Islands of La Cloche, about 50 miles distant, the lake near the shore is studded with innumerable islands; some near the main, barren, composed of gneis, and like heaps of ruins; others, farther out in the lake, loftier, and girded with a belt of flat ground, consisting of shelly limestone, richly

wooded. Further west the Islands of *La Cloche*¹ form a charming contrast to the bleak hills on the main, which rise 1000 feet above the level of the lake; and with their dark green forests diversified by grassy vales and clumps of trees, appear like an artificial English park. Groups of islands occupy the lake from La Cloche to Missalaga River, 60 miles distant; some near the main low and barren, others elevated and woody; beyond the Missalaga, is a low, rocky shore. The north-west arm of Lake Huron, which communicates with Lake Superior, is of an oblong shape, the two longer sides at their western extremities converging towards the north; it contains about 400 square miles, and is crowded with islands of all sizes; the principal, St. Joseph², is 65 miles in circumference, through which runs an undulating ridge, called the Highlands of St. Joseph, 500 feet high: the north-west point of St. Joseph is in longitude 84, and latitude 46.18. Pelletan's Channel, dividing St. Joseph from the main, is remarkable for fine scenery. Portlock Harbour, a British military position, 1100 miles from Quebec, is an extensive haven, interspersed with rocky islets, and girt by woody hills starting forth in a series of verdant or rocky capes. Muddy Lake, bounding the south-west side of St. Joseph's Isle, is a noble sheet of water 17 miles long, and varying from two to seven

¹ The name is derived from the belief that some of the islands are composed of dark rocks, which, when struck, sound like a bell.

² This island belongs to the English, and its neighbour, Drummond Isle, to the United States, and on each are small military detachments belonging to their respective governments.

in breadth ; its shores are deep embayments, ending in grassy marshes, especially on the south-east side.

The Michilimackinac, or south-west arm of Lake Huron, leading into Lake Michigan, has only been examined by the engineers of the United States, and their report has not been published. On the side of Michilimackinac (which is eleven miles wide) is the peninsula called False Presquisle. The view into Lake Michigan, from Michilimackinac Isle, which lies in the strait of that name, midway from either main, is particularly pleasing ; the land, which at first closes on the water, at once dilates into a spacious sound, with curving shores and woody capes, interspersed in the distance with clusters of islands. The pretty hamlet of St. Ignace, the high white cliffs of Michilimackinac, contrasted with the dark foliage around, and the blue light streaming through the sound from the vast lake beyond, offer a rich field for the lovers of natural scenery. Nothing is worthy of remark down the south-east shore, as far as Thunder Bay and Middle Islands, which are flat, calcareous, and well covered with timber of various kinds. The Gulf of Saguinaw the English know little about ; from Pont aux Barques to the River St. Clair, is a straight line of beach, with now and then a stiff clay, and, about midway, a large block of white limestone rises from the waters of the lake.

On the elevated south-east shore of the lake, in the London district, between 43.10 and 43.53 of north latitude, about 40 miles at its nearest point from the head of Lake Ontario, and 30 miles from the north border of Lake Erie, is situate the fine

tract termed the Huron territory, and belonging to the Upper Canada Company. It is of a triangular shape, the base 60 miles in length, resting on Lake Huron, and comprising 1,100,000 acres. At the confluence of the River Maitland with the lake, forming an excellent harbour capable of sheltering vessels of 200 tons burthen, the Company have laid out the neat and flourishing town of Goderich. The general surface of the Huron territory is level, frequently presenting rich natural meadows. The Rivers Maitland, aux Sables, a large branch of the Thames, and other rivers and streams, water this fine district¹.

Georgiana Bay, a vast arm of Lake Huron on the north-east side, is studded with fine harbours.

The principal British naval station, in Lake Huron, is Penetanguishine (latitude 44.57, longitude 79.35), in the south-east bight of Georgiana Bay, within Gloucester harbour; it is sheltered by hills of sand and rolled blocks.

The lake we are now treating of, may be considered the centre of the great chain of waters round it, as it has a direct communication with all. It communicates with Superior by St. Mary's River; with Michigan (and through it with the Illinois River), by the Straits of Michilimackinac; with Erie, by the River and Lake of St. Clair; and with Ontario, by the Severn River; Lake Simcoe, a chain of lakes, and the Trent River. It has also two known communications with the Ottawa, — one

¹ A steam-vessel was recently built at Goderich, to ply between that town and Sandwich, on the Detroit, a distance of 150 miles.

through Lake Simcoe, and a chain of lakes to the source of the Madawasca, which falls into the Lake of Chats ; the other, up French River, through Lake Nipissing, and down a rapid river to the Ottawa, near Mataouin.

The principal rivers emptying themselves into Lake Huron are, the Thessalon, Missassaga, French, Severn, St. Clair, Maitland, and Saguina. The two former, situate in the north-east corner of the lake, are small. French River, which connects Lake Huron with Lake Nipissing, is 75 miles in length, and less resembles one stream than a confusion of rivers, flowing, with frequent inosculation, among lengthened ridges of rock : its shores seldom present continuous lines, but are excavated with deep and narrow bays, obscured by high walls, rock, and dwarf pines. Its breadth varies, sometimes extending more than one league, and occupied by islands of every possible shape. Dr. Bigsby says, that few American prospects exceed in singularity and grandeur those which are here afforded, by groups of long and lofty islets extending in giant rays from a centre in some dark bay,—the clear water reflecting their rugged outlines and wild foliage, amid the solemn stillness pervading these solitudes.

Two cataracts occur in French River,—by one it leaves Lake Nipissing ; the other is twenty miles below, called the *Recollet*, where the black crags in the midst of the foaming waters, beset with dead and living pine, impart great beauty to the scene.

There are also several rapids ; one, Brisson, commemorates, by thirteen wooden crosses, an equal

number of fatal accidents which occurred in crossing the foaming torrent; the average strength of which, along the whole course of the river, is about two miles per hour.

The *Saguina* River, flowing through a fine and level country, is 180 yards broad for 24 miles, when it divides into three small and very circuitous branches, one of which is called Flint River. The *Saguina* is 120 miles from Detroit, through the woods, and about 220 by water. The United States are selling the land in its neighbourhood.

The *Severn* River, connecting Lakes Simcoe and Huron, is about 30 miles in length; and at its mouth, near Penetanguishine, it is one and a quarter mile broad: it has two falls, and undergoes a descent of 80 feet from Lake Simcoe.

The *St. Clair*, which (according to Dr. Bigsby¹) is the only river of discharge for Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which cover a surface of thirty-eight and a half million of acres, and are fed by numerous large rivers, is 300 yards broad at its commencement, and flows for twenty-six miles, to its entrance into Lake St. Clair, through a luxuriant alluvial country, with a straight course, and a smooth and equable current of two miles an hour. At its head, there is a rapid, for three quarters of a mile, at five miles per hour; and it enters Lake St. Clair by a multitude of shallow changeable mouths, but navigable for schooners.

¹ I differ from this able observer, and am of opinion that the Missouri and Mississippi receive some of the waters of Superior and Michigan.

LAKE ST. CLAIR—is scarcely more than an intermediate link between Huron lake and the noble basin of Erie, being connected with the latter by the Detroit River; it is of an irregular oval shape, about thirty miles in diameter, and generally shoal, but with a depth of water sufficient for steam-boats and schooners. The shores are low and level, and a group of flat islands, formed by the constant alluvial accumulations carried from Lake Huron by the St. Clair River, contracts its surface to the northward. This lake receives two large rivers; 1st, the *Thames River*, (formerly *Rivière à la Tranche*,) which rises north of the township of Blandford, has a serpentine course of 150 miles nearly south-west, and discharges itself into Lake St. Clair. It is navigable for large vessels to Chatham (fifteen miles from its embouchure), and for boats nearly to its source: the bar however at its entrance is some obstacle to navigation. The Thames winds through a level and highly fertile country, the banks presenting many fine plains and natural meadows. The soil is principally a sandy earth, intermixed with large quantities of loam, and sometimes marl, under which is a substratum of clay; and the river flats are exceedingly rich, from the alluvial deposits left after the overflowing of the banks. The oak, maple, pine, beech, and walnut, growing in the vicinity, are of superior quality.

London is situate on the banks of the main branch of the Thames, about ninety miles from its mouth, and in a tolerably central position with regard to the surrounding lakes. Chatham, as already observed, is fifteen miles from its mouth.

The *Big Bear River*, or “Creek,” rises near the

limits of the Huron tract, and after running a course of about one hundred miles generally parallel to the Thames (in one place approaching it within five miles), it falls into Lake St. Clair at the mouth of one of its north-east channels.

The *Detroit* River, or rather strait; connects Lake St. Clair with Lake Erie,—flowing, after a westerly bend, nearly due S. from the former, broad and deep, for 29 miles; for the greater part of its course the channel is divided by long narrow islands: the largest (Gros Isle, eight miles long) is within the American boundary; the second (Turkey Island, five miles long) is within the British territory. Isle au Bois Blanc, one and a half mile long, belonging to Upper Canada, is of great importance from its situation, as it divides the channel between Gros Isle and the east bank of the river, leaving the deepest channel to the east, and commands the entrance of the Detroit, which is navigable for vessels of any size employed upon the lakes; it affords besides, at the British settlement of Amherstburgh, an excellent harbour. Sandwich, another delightful British town, is situate 14 miles from Amherstburgh. The country around is extremely picturesque; the banks high and richly cultivated, the eye everywhere resting on fertile fields, well stocked gardens, and orchards, extensive barns and neat farm-houses. The most important American town, on the opposite bank, is Detroit, which is a strong military station. During winter the river is completely frozen over.

We now arrive at that splendid sheet of water called—

LAKE ERIE, which receives the Detroit river,

about 30 miles from its north-west extremity. This magnificent lake, unlike Huron or Superior (which lie generally north and south), runs nearly east and west, between 41.20. and 42.50. north latitude, 78.35. and 83.10. west longitude, being 280 miles long, and 63 miles and a half broad at its centre, 658 miles in circumference, and covering an area of about 12,000 square miles. In extreme depth it varies from 40 to 45 fathoms, with a rocky bottom¹, the average being from 15 to 18 fathoms over its whole extent; hence when the wind blows strong, the lake becomes exceedingly rough and boisterous, and a very high and dangerous surf breaks upon the shore, which in many places resembles the sea beach, being strewed with dead fish and shells, and frequented by various species of aquatic birds.

The surface of Erie is 334 feet above that of Lake Ontario, with which it is connected by the Welland Canal, and 565 feet above the tide water at Albany, with which it is connected by the great Erie Canal.

The southern shore of the Lake (which is exclusively within the territory of the United States, as the north is within the British) is generally low, from the American town of Buffalo at its eastern extremity, to Detroit at its western, except near the portage of Chataughue, where, for a short distance, it is rocky and bold, and between Cleveland and the Reneshowa river, where the cliffs rise 20 yards per-

¹ Lakes Superior and Huron have a stiff clayey bottom mixed with shells.

pendicularly above the waters' level, and continue so to the River Huron. Erie, an American town of some extent, with a strong battery, dock-yard, &c. is to the south-eastward of the lake. About 20 miles along the mouth of the lake, is a tract called the Sugar-loaf Country, from its being diversified with numerous conical hills, which average from 20 to 30 feet high, composed of sand and clay, and extending several miles. The beach at this part of the lake is covered with huge black rocks, against which the lake beats with incessant roar, and during spring and autumn thick mists often obscure the sky for days.

The north shore of Lake Erie, entering on the British territory, is bolder and more elevated than the American shore, of an irregular form, by reason of several capes or points of land. The banks of the lake sometimes rise to the height of 100 feet perpendicular, consisting of clay and sand, broken and excavated in a thousand different ways by the action of the lake ; in some places, large bodies of clay project 20 or 30 feet beyond the main bank, and lofty trees, from the roots of which the soil has been swept away, appear suspended by a few fibres. During tempests the waters suddenly rise, and beat with great violence against these sand cliffs, covering the beach, and overwhelming boats, &c. The first cape is Point Pele, or South Foreland, on the north-west shore, near Lake St. Clair, the southernmost point of Canada, and indeed of the British dominions in North America. The next prominence is Point aux Pins (Landguard), whence there is a

short westerly route to Chatham, on the Thames. Further east is Long Point, or the North Foreland, a narrow peninsula, stretching eastward into the lake for about 20 miles, forming a bay on its north-east shore. The fine river Ouse, which rises near Lake Huron, in latitude 43. north, and passes by the waters of the Thames, falls into the Lake Erie, after a course of 100 miles, still further east, where the Welland Canal, (see canals) which joins Erie and Ontario, commences.

Compared with the other great lakes, Erie, as before observed, is shallow, of rather dangerous navigation, on account of the great number of rocks which project for many miles together, from the north shore, with little shelter from storms.

A constant current sets down Lake Erie, with the prevalence of N. W. and S. W. winds. The principal harbours on the south shore are Buffalo and Dunkirk (New York); Erie (Pennsylvania); Sandusky (Ohio); besides the harbour at Put-in-Bay Island.

The promontories on the north (British) side afford several good harbours and anchorage, during the heavy gales which blow on this lake¹. During the

¹ The Kingston Herald notices a most extraordinary occurrence on Lake Erie during a late storm. A channel was made by the violence of the tempest through Long Point, N. Foreland, 300 yards wide, and from 11 to 15 feet deep. It had been in contemplation to cut a canal at this very spot, the expenses of which were estimated at £12,000. The York Courier confirms this extraordinary intelligence, stating that the storm made a breach through the point near the main land, converted the peninsula into an island, and actually made a canal 400 yards wide

American war, the belligerents maintained each a large naval force on this lake; on the 13th September a battle was fought between the English squadron, carrying 63 guns, and the American carrying 54 guns, aided, however, by a number of gun-boats, which terminated in the capture of the English fleet. Several other hard-fought contests took place on this lake, which I pass over as incompatible with the brevity necessary to this work, and proceed to notice the Niagara River, whose frontiers on the American and Canada shores are, perhaps, the most populous, and best settled of any locations in either country; a circumstance which accounts for the larger number of vessels (250), and steam-boats (about 60¹, *besides* a number of others connected with them, and running on Detroit river and Lake Michigan), which find a profitable employment on Lake Erie. This Lake may be regarded as a central reservoir, from which open in all directions the most extensive channels of inland navigation to be found in the world; enabling vessels of the lake to traverse the whole interior of the country, to visit the Atlantic and eight or ten feet deep, almost at the very point where the proposed canal was to have been cut; and rendered nothing else now necessary in order to secure a safe channel for vessels and a good harbour on both sides, than the construction of a pier on the west side to prevent the channel from being filled up with sand. This information had recently been communicated by John Harris, Esq. of Long Point, to Sir John Colborne, and sent down to the House of Assembly by His Excellency.

¹ The number of passengers leaving Buffalo daily in 1836 was 1000, and those arriving 400: the charge for crossing the lake is 20s. The British counties of Oxford and Middlesex are thickly settled.

at the north or in the south, and collect the products and luxuries of every clime¹. Indeed, as expressed in the *Buffalo Journal*, the map of the entire globe does not present another sheet of water so strikingly peculiar as Lake Erie, commanding, as it does, the navigable waters of North America. From the south a steam-boat has ascended the Alleghany to Warren, and a trifling improvement will enable steam-boats from New Orleans to approach within three miles of Portland harbour.

From the north, the vessels of Ontario visit Erie, through the Welland Canal and River², and efforts

¹ I may here advert to that justly celebrated American work, the Erie canal, which commencing at the city of Albany, and terminating at Buffalo in the county of Erie, connects the waters of the Hudson river with those of Lake Erie. It is 363 miles in length, has 83 locks (each 90 feet long in the clear, and 15 wide,) of 689 feet rise and fall, and 18 aqueducts; the longest at Rochester 804 feet across the Genessee river; the canal is 40 feet wide at the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 deep. It was commenced in 1817, and finished in 1825. Together with the Champlain canal, (which extends 64 miles, with 188 feet of lockage country, connecting the Erie canal waters with those of Lake Champlain,) its cost was upwards of 11,000,000 dollars, and the tolls thereon now produce an annual income of upwards of one million dollars.

The Oswego canal, commencing at Syracuse in Onondaga, and terminating at Oswego, connects the Erie canal with the waters of Lake Ontario. It is 38 miles long, has 123 feet lockages, was completed in 1828, and cost 565,437 Spanish dollars. There are several other canals all branching in different directions, and connecting almost every lake and river, no matter how distant.

² Following its windings, this river is about 150 miles long, 1,000 feet wide, and navigable for 30 miles. On one of its

are now in progress to make the St. Lawrence a ship channel from Ontario to Montreal, where vessels from England may pass from Quebec into Erie, through Ontario. The Ohio and Pennsylvania canals will open a communication, through the Ohio river, to the Mississippi¹, and another channel between Lake Erie and the Gulf of Mexico, presents itself by the way of Lakes Huron and Michigan. No country offers, in fact, greater facilities for inland navigation; and as on the Grison Alps, where a person may drink, without changing place, of water which flows into the Mediterranean, the Rhine, and German Ocean, so it is not improbable that we may find a point of junction of the waters of the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi and Red River of Hudson's Bay, and the River of the West, which are embosomed in the ocean at the extreme east, west, north, and south shores of the North American continent.

The *Niagara River*, which connects Erie and Ontario Lakes, commences at the north-east extremity of the former, and is the outlet not only of the waters of Erie, but also of those vast basins of Huron, Michigan, Superior, and their thousand tributaries. The river is thirty-three miles and a half long in its bends (twenty-eight direct), and traverses a country

branches called the *Speed*, 100 miles from its mouth, lies the thriving town of Guelph.

¹ Lake Erie is 560 feet above the tide waters of the Hudson, St. Clair 10 feet higher, Huron 19, and Superior 53, making the last 642 feet above the ocean level. The sources of the Mississippi, which runs 3,038 miles, are 1,330 feet above the level of the sea.

unrivalled for its richness and fertility, on the American, as well as on the British side. When first assuming the character of a river at Fort Erie, it is one mile wide, but soon contracts its bed, at Black Rock to half a mile, and becomes rapid; but again expanding to its original dimensions, it flows on with more gentleness, its general course being from south to north. A ferry at Black Rock, when the current is seven miles an hour, offers a sublime prospect of the mighty mass of waters rushing from the inland seas, to join their parent ocean. Beyond Black Rock, the river widens to embrace Grand Isle, twelve miles long, and two to seven miles broad, with Square Isle at its head, and Navy Isle¹ at its foot; below this, the river resembles a bay, more than two miles in breadth, and then narrow down the rapids to the far-famed Falls of Niagara, which are twenty miles from Lake Erie, the whole of which is navigable, except below Chippewa, where the indraught of the cataract begins to be felt.

Niagara Falls.—This celebrated cataract has been so often described, as scarcely to admit of repetition; a few words must, however, be devoted to the subject.

The River Niagara, previous to arriving at the ledge of limestone rocks (see geological section), over which it is so tremendously precipitated, takes a sudden turn or bend to the north-north-east, its previous course being mostly due west, forming what

¹ All the islands in the Niagara river have been ceded to the United States, (except Navy Island,) by the decision of the commissioners, under the 6th article of the treaty of Ghent.

is termed the "Horseshoe Fall," which bend accelerates the velocity of the rapid. On the New York side of the river, a small islet, termed Goat Island, divides off a portion of the immense stream, and beyond the island the cataracts on the British American side may be said to commence.

The Horseshoe Cataract, on the British side, is the largest; the curvatures of the fall have been geometrically computed at 700 yards, and its altitude, taken with a plumb line from the surface of the Table Rock, 149 feet; the American fall, narrowed by Goat Island¹, does not exceed 375 yards in curvilinear length, (the whole irregular semicircle is nearly three quarters of a mile,) its perpendicular height being 162 feet, or 13 feet higher than the top of the Great Fall; adding 57 feet for the fall, the rapids thus give only a total of 219 feet, which is less than many other falls²; but their magnificence consists in the volume

¹ An enterprising American has constructed a wooden bridge 600 feet in length, from the main bank of the Niagara to Goat Island. The difficulty in constructing this bridge by piles driven in the river, may be estimated from the fact of the flood of waters rushing seven miles an hour over a bed of broken rocks.

² The following estimate, by an American writer, shews the height of various falls in different parts of the globe:—Falls of Niagara, width of river three quarters of a mile; fall of the rapid 57 feet, grand falls 164, total 221 feet.—The Montmorency river, 9 miles below Quebec, 50 feet in breadth, fall 250 feet.—Chaudiere, near the Montmorency, 100 feet.—Mississippi, above its junction with the Ohio, 700 feet wide, falls 40 feet.—Missaurie, 500 miles from its sources, descent in 18 miles 360 feet; the river is 1000 feet broad; one cataract is 87 feet, another 47, and another 26; the other 200 feet are rapids; 360 feet.—Passaic, N. Jersey, stream 150 feet wide, falls into a chasm only 12 feet

of water precipitated over them, which has been computed at 2,400 millions of tons per day, 102 millions per hour ! A calculation made at Queenstown, below the falls, is as follows :—the river is here half a mile broad, it averages twenty-five feet deep, current three miles an hour ; in one hour it will discharge a column of water three miles long, half a mile wide, and twenty-five feet deep, containing 1,111,440,000 cubic feet, being, 18,524,000 cubic feet, or 113,510,000 *gallons of water each minute.*

The island which divides, and perhaps adds to the sublimity of the falls, is 330 yards wide, and covered with vegetation ; the eastern or American bank of the river, and the islands thereon, are also low and covered with vegetation, which, with its soft beauty, is in strong contrast to the awful scene beneath ; the west, or British bank, is more bold and lofty, consisting of a horizontal ridge of rocky table land along

broad, 70 feet.—Mohawk, at Cahoes, near its junction with the Hudson, 60.—Tuccoa, Ga stream 20 feet wide, 187 feet.—Ache, in Bavaria ; river falls, in 5 steps, 200 feet.—Tequendama, S. America ; the river Bogota, rises in the mountains 9000 feet above the level of the sea, and is precipitated through various gorges, chasms, and precipices, until it plunges into an immense chasm, 600 feet.—Nile, at Syene, 40 feet.—Gothea, in Sweden, fall at Trolhatta 100 feet.—Lattin, in Swedish Lapland, half a mile wide, falls 400 feet.—Maamelven, in Norway, as related by Mr. Esmark, falls in three places.—Schaffhaussen, 400 feet wide, falls 70 feet.—Orco, from Rosa, in Italy, descends in one continued cascade 1200 feet.—Staubbach, in Switzerland, a small stream, falls 1400 feet.—Terni, 45 miles north of Rome, the river Velino falls over marble rocks 300 feet.—At Tivoli, 18 miles north-east of Rome, the Anio, a branch of the Tiber, falls 100 feet.

the margin of the rapids, and gradually increasing in elevation from ten to one hundred feet; at the foot of this ridge, on a level with the summit of the Horseshoe Fall, is the Table Rock, so famous as the spot where a very near view of the cataract may be seen; indeed it forms a section of the ledge over which part of the torrent is precipitated, its flat surface jutting out horizontally about fifty feet, and overhanging the terrific gulf.

At the foot of the cataract it is possible but perilous to penetrate thirty yards behind the gigantic concave sheet of the headlong flood, where a cavern is formed about 150 feet in height, 50 in breadth, and 300 in length, fit only for the habitation of its present tenants—the eel and the water snake. This dangerous chasm¹ below the falls is considered the best place for estimating the height of Niagara—that vast volume of water which four great lakes², the least of which is 1,200 miles in compass, pour forth to the ocean,—and the irresistible force with which this mighty mass foams and boils when rushing from the precipice. Here also may best be witnessed the beautiful play of the prismatic colours, as they form

¹ The perilous path lies along the slippery margin of storming eddies, beneath impending rocks and amidst the jarring elements; thus requiring great self-possession in making the attempt, for one false step, or the least giddiness, may plunge the adventurer into the whirling and boiling vortex of the falls; a danger the more imminent because the path leads over sharp, broken, and excessively slippery rocks, on which it is extremely difficult to retain a footing, owing to the perpetual mossy moisture they imbibe from the oozing crevices of the superincumbent cliffs.

² The total area of the four lakes is 100,000 square miles!

with the clouds of rising spray,—and the snow-white billows as they are rolled out by the meeting of the waters. This is also the most advantageous situation for listening to the awful roar sent up from the deep abyss, when even the solid rocks have imparted to them an apparent trembling and quivering motion.

But from the Table Rock above, is the most sublime and beautiful spectacle¹; here may be viewed the first ripple that marks the increasing rapidity of the Niagara, the eye of the spectator following it downwards as its impetuosity increases, and its waves roll on their crested curls; then again when they no longer roll but rush in a loud roar of broken wild confusion, and next unite in a sheet of transparent emerald green, plunging into the gulf and rising again in infinitely divided spray, floating gossamer-

¹ The spectator may here approach so near that, if he possesses nerve enough, he may, by lying prostrate on the rock, and stretching forth his arm, move his hand in the dread torrent; but it is a fearful experiment, owing to the bewildering noise and view of the cataract. Some persons have described the effect of such situations to be in many cases a desire to precipitate oneself from the height. The statement is correct. I myself felt this sensation when crossing the mountain torrents in India, on the slender rope or vine bridges which the natives construct; and on ascending to the narrow height of La Pouse, in the Isle of France, (a less hazardous experiment than Lieutenant Taylor and others lately performed,) with Lieutenants Fetherston, Clarke, &c. I should most probably have precipitated myself from this vast height, but for the exertions of my brother officers. Subsequently again I felt this horrid inclination when I rode to the top of Table Mountain, at the Cape of Good Hope, and, sitting on horseback, looked down from a height of 4,000 feet on the apparently mimic capital of Southern Africa.

like in mid air. How beautifully does Byron depict such a scene when adverting to the far lesser fall of Velino¹!

The roar of waters !—from the headlong height
Velino cleaves the wave-worn precipice ;
The fall of waters ! rapid as the light,
The flashing mass foams shaking the abyss ;
The hell of waters ! where they howl and hiss,
And boil in endless torture ; while the sweat
Of their great agony, wrung out from this
Their Phlegethon, curls round the rocks of jet
That gird the gulf around, in pitiless horror set,

And mounts in spray the skies, and thence again
Returns in an unceasing shower, which round,
With its unemptied cloud of gentle rain,
Is an eternal April to the ground,
Making it all one emerald : how profound
The gulf ! and how the giant element
From rock to rock leaps with delirious bound,
Crushing the cliffs, which, downward worn and rent
With his fierce footsteps, yield in chasms a fearful vent

To the broad column which rolls on, and shows
More like the fountain of an infant sea
Torn from the womb of mountains by the throes
Of a new world, than only thus to be
Parent of rivers, which flow gushingly,
With many windings, through the vale :—Look back !
Lo ! where it comes like an eternity,
As if to sweep down all things in its track,
Charming the eye with dread,—a matchless cataract,

Horribly beautiful ! but on the verge
From side to side, beneath the glittering morn,

¹ Childe Harold, canto iv. stanzas 69, 70, 71, and 72.

An Iris sits¹, amidst the infernal surge,
Like Hope upon a death bed, and, unworn
Its steady dyes, while all around is torn
By the distracted waters, bears serene
Its brilliant hues with all their beams unshorn :
Resembling, 'mid the torture of the scene,
Love watching Madness with unalterable mien.

The splendour of this extraordinary scene is enhanced by the simple view of the wild duck, and other water fowl, swimming down the rapids to the brink of the precipice, then flying out and repeating the descent with apparent delight,—while above, the blue bird and the wren, in their annual visit to Niagara, take pleasure in flying within one or two feet of the brink, and sport over the frightful fall with evident happiness ; now verging on the crystal stream that flows over the precipice, then dipping a wing in the bright green wave, and then skimming swiftly along its surface :—who would not wish at such a moment for the wings of a bird ? The sound of the falls is audible at various distances according to the state of the air and the wind ; it has been clearly discernible at Buffalo, eighteen miles distant, and some say the noise has been distinctly heard at Toronto, on the

¹ Colonel Bouchette (who wrote after Lord Byron) observes that, according to the altitude of the sun, and the situation of the spectator, a distinct and bright Iris is seen amidst the revolving columns of mist that soar from the foaming chasm and shroud the broad front of the gigantic flood ; both arches of the bow are seldom entirely elicited, but the interior segment is perfect, and its prismatic hues are extremely glowing and vivid ; the fragments of a plurality of rainbows are sometimes to be seen in various parts of the misty curtain.

opposite shore of Lake Ontario, a distance of forty-six miles. It is difficult to convey an idea of the extraordinary roar of the Niagara, it being an alternation of open and muffled sounds, likened by some to the hoarse voice of ocean surges heavily lashing the shore,—by others to the plunging dash of huge spherical rocks hurled in quick and ceaseless succession from a precipice of great altitude into profound waters—and, among many other similitudes, its roaring, rumbling, thundering noise is thought to approximate most to the pealing artillery of two large squadrons at sea in thick weather, the auditor being about five miles distant, such as may have been heard on the heights of Aboukir, when the fleets of Nelson and Brueys sent the reverberating echo of their dread hostilities along the Nile.

But it is time to proceed towards the Lake of a thousand isles¹;—a little below the falls, the Niagara resumes its wonted soft beauty, and the spectator crossing the ferry has, on looking upwards, a splendid view of the semi-circle cataracts to the extent of 3000 feet, whence the vast floods of the great American lakes burst with a stupendous force, as if the floodgates of heaven were opening to deluge the earth, while onward flows the calm Niagara to Ontario, a distance of 13 miles. On reaching Queenston², seven miles from the falls (Upper Canada side)

¹ A city is projected to be built adjoining the Niagara cataract on the British side; and the plan in shares is laid down for the purpose.

² It was here the gallant and much beloved General Brock was killed in the campaign of 1812, when nobly leading a few troops against a much superior force up the Queenston heights.

the face of the country suddenly alters, and rises into abrupt and elevated ridges, supposed to have been the banks of the river in former ages ¹.

Fort George, or Niagara, or Newark, formerly the seat of Government, (distant from Toronto, round the head of Lake Ontario, about 40 miles) is situate upon a rising ground on the west bank of the river Niagara, within a mile of the angle formed by the river and the lake, protecting on our side the western boundary of the Niagara frontier ²; it was the scene

¹ About four miles above Queenston, is a singular part of the Niagara river called the whirlpool, the mouth of which is more than 1,000 feet wide, and in length about 2,000. Mr. Howison, in his interesting sketches of Upper Canada, says, that the current of the river has formed a circular excavation in the high and perpendicular banks, resembling a bay. The current, which is extremely rapid, whenever it reaches the upper point of this bay, forsakes the direct channel, and sweeps wildly round the sides of it; when, having made this extraordinary circuit, it regains its proper course, and rushes with perturbed velocity between two perpendicular precipices, which are not more than 400 feet asunder. The surface of the whirlpool is in a state of continual agitation. The water boils, mantles up, and wreathes, in a manner that proves its fearful depth and the confinement it suffers; the trees that come within the sphere of the current are swept along with a quivering zig-zag motion which it is difficult to describe. This singular body of water must be several hundred feet deep, and has not hitherto been frozen over, although in spring the broken ice that descends from Lake Erie collects in such quantities upon its surface, and becomes so closely wedged together, that it resists the current, and remains till warm weather breaks it up. The whirlpool is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the Upper Province, and is the more interesting to the mind, as its formation cannot be rationally accounted for.

² From Fort George along the Niagara river to Queenston, a

of a severe contest in 1813, in which the Americans, with a superior and well combined naval and land armament, were victorious.

The Niagara river enters Lake Ontario in latitude north 43.15.30, longitude 79.00.40; the difference of height between its efflux and afflux being 334 feet¹ on a distance of thirty-six and a half miles.

LAKE ONTARIO.—The last in chain, and the most easterly of the great inland American seas (which may well be considered the wonder and admiration of the world), lying east and west, and nearly half of which is in the state of New York, is situate between the parallels 43.10 and 44.11 north latitude, and the meridians of 76.25 and 79.56 west longitude; in form elliptical, and measuring 172 miles on a central line drawn from its south-west to its north-east extremity; in its greatest breadth 59 miles², medial 40, and about

distance of eight miles, there is a considerable elevation of the land on either side of the river, extending both E. and W. about fourteen miles. The land rises for ten miles further to Chipewewa, but the river is only navigable for large vessels as far as Queenston, where it is about 200 yards broad; from thence to the falls it seldom exceeds fifty or sixty yards in width.

¹ Thus—difference of elevation between Lake Erie and the head of the rapids (distance 23 miles) 15 feet; thence to the *foot* of the rapids (half a mile), 51 feet; height of the great fall on the American side 162 feet from the base of the falls to Queenston (distance 13 miles,) 104 feet; and from Queenston to Lake Ontario, 2 feet—total, 334 feet.

² The breadth, as will be observed by the map, varies,—from Toronto (York) to Niagara, it is 35 miles; from Presque Isle to Genesee River, 60 miles; from Ernest town to Oswego, 55 miles; and from Kingston to Sacket's Harbour, round the head of Wolf or Grand Island, 36 miles.

467 miles in circumference; the average depth is about 500 feet, consequently considerably below the level of the Atlantic Ocean, its surface being only 231 feet above the tide waters at Three Rivers, on the St. Lawrence, and at Albany, on the Hudson. According to some examinations, the depth varies very much, there being seldom less than three or more than fifty fathoms, except in the middle, where there have been no soundings at a depth of 300 fathoms. The shores of Ontario are generally covered with gravel, consisting principally of small thin pieces of limestone, worn round and smooth by the motion of the water; this gravel is washed on the beach, in long ridges, sometimes several miles in extent, and when consolidated with the clayey soil which generally abounds along the shore, it is not moveable under the feet,—hence it becomes an excellent material for the formation of roads. In some places the beach of Ontario appears to be a horizontal stratum of limestone; but it consists of this gravel when level, having its interstices filled with the finer particles of the limestone washed off by friction, which thus connects the whole, occasionally enclosing muscle-shells and decayed substances. The water of Ontario, like that of the other lakes, and of the St. Lawrence River, is limpid and pure, except when mixed with particles of earth from the shores, by the agitation of the winds (those of the Ohio and Mississippi are turbid, like the Ganges and Orinoco); the water of Ontario is used for drink, and also for washing, though it is not so suitable for the solution of soap as

rain water. For a few days in June, the water near the shores is annually covered with a yellowish scum, rendering it unfit for culinary or other purposes : the cause of this phenomenon is unknown. During the height of summer, the shore-water is too warm for pleasant drinking, unless kept some hours in a cool cellar. Gales of wind, on this lake, are frequent, and attended with an unpleasant 'sea.' Every seven years the waters of the lake rise to an unusual height, of which phenomenon no satisfactory account has as yet been given. The refractions which take place on Ontario, in calm weather, are exceedingly beautiful— islands and trees appear turned upside down—the white surf of the beach is translated aloft, and seems like the smoke of artillery blazing away from a fort— large fountains of water seem to swell upon the horizon, and at times the spectator appears in the midst of a splendid ewer, which pours water around to the depth of 20 feet.

The physical aspect of the shores of Ontario exhibits great diversity,—towards the north-east they are low, with swampy marshes,—to the north and north-west, the banks assume a bold appearance,— which again subside to almost a plain on the southern or American shore ; but well relieved, in the back ground, by a ridge of hills, that, after forming the precipice for the Niagara Cataract, stretches away to the eastward. The country bordering the lake is well wooded, and through the numerous openings, the prospect is enlivened by flourishing settlements ; the view being extremely picturesque along the white

cliffs of Toronto, heightened by the remarkably high land over Presqu'île, called the Devil's nose, on the north.

A ridge of high land runs from the Bay of Quinté, on the north-west of the lake, along the northern shores of Ontario to the westward, at a distance, in some places, of not more than nine miles (as at Hamilton), and dividing the numerous streams and head waters falling into that lake from those descending north into the River Trent, Rice Lake, Otanabee River, and the contiguous chain of lakes. At Toronto (York) this ridge recedes north-east from the lake to the distance of 24 miles, separating the waters of Holland River, and other streams falling into Lake Huron and Simcoe, from those discharging themselves into the Ontario. The ridge thence bending round the heads of the Toronto River, and its tributary streams, dividing them from those of the Grand or Ouse River, pursues a south-eastwardly direction towards the head of the lake, merges in the Burlington Heights, and runs along the shores of Burlington Bay, and the south-west side of Lake Ontario (at a distance of from four to eight miles), to Queenston Heights; the direction is still eastward until it stretches into the territory of the United States, to Lockport on Erie Canal (twelve miles from Lake Ontario), which it crosses and with which it runs parallel, until it arrives at Rochester, on the Genesee banks, where it subsides¹;

¹ The ridge on the American side of Lake Ontario is called the *Ridge Road*, or *Alluvial Way*; it extends 87 miles from Rochester, on the Genesee, to Lewiston, on the Niagara, and is composed of common beach sand and gravel stones, worn

thus, as it were, forming the shores of the original basin of the lake, as far as regards the greater part of its northern and southern boundary.

Many tributaries¹ flow into Lake Ontario,—which receives, from the state of New York, the Rivers Niagara, Genesee, Oswego, and Black River, besides many smaller streams. Among its bays, on the same side, are, Chaumont, Sodees (Great and Little), Toronto, and Braddocks.

The principal river on the North British shore is the Trent, which issuing out of Rice Lake², after a very winding course of 100 miles, falls into the Bay of Quinté, near the village of Sidney. The Otanabee, which falls into the north shore of Rice Lake, may be considered a continuation of the Trent River; of which the Rice Lake is merely an expansion, as is so often the case in the American rivers. The Otanabee,

smooth, intermixed with small shells; its general width is from four to eight rods, and it is raised in the middle with a handsome crowning arch, from six to ten feet. At the Rivers Genesee and Niagara its elevation is about 130 feet, which is the elevation above Lake Ontario, from which it is distant from six to ten miles; there is a regular and gradual descent from the road to the lake. The only way of accounting for the ridge is by supposing Lake Ontario to have been 130 feet higher than it is at present; if this be the fact, Ontario and Erie must have formed one lake,—but then, as the Americans observe, a similar ridge existed on the south side of Lake Erie for 120 miles. The natural “Ridge Road” of New York is the best in the state.

¹ Almost every river has a sand bar across its entrance.

² *Rice Lake*, in the district of Newcastle, about 15 miles from Lake Ontario, and lying nearly S.W. and N.E., is 25 miles long by 5 wide. Its name is derived from the wild rice growing on its margin and surrounding marshes.

like the Trent, is a broad and full river,—and, both are navigable for boats. From its source in Trout Lake, it communicates by a chain of lakes with Lake Simcoe¹, through which it is proposed to open a canal communication between Lakes Huron and Ontario.

Several navigable² bays occur on both sides of the

¹ *Simcoe Lake*—in Home district, between Lakes Huron and Ontario, with an area of 300 square miles, is the most extensive interior lake of Upper Canada; the elevation of its surface (estimated by the height of the frequent falls and cascades by which its outlet is broken) is 100 feet above the level of Lake Huron, and, therefore, much higher than either Erie or Ontario. It is proposed to connect Simcoe with Huron and Ontario Lakes by canals; which, however, would require frequent lockage, though the distance is comparatively small. The lands in the vicinity of Lake Simcoe are remarkably fine; and from the depth of soil, and equality of the surface, peculiarly easy of cultivation.

² The canoes which navigate the Canadian lakes have been thus described by Mr. Gould, in a paper with which he has favoured me :—

“The canoes are among the most ingenious and most useful of the Indian manufactures; and nothing that European ingenuity has devised, is so well adapted to the habits and the necessities of their mode of life; they are made of the bark of the birch tree,—and of all the various contrivances for transporting burthens by water, these vessels are the most extraordinary. From the slighthness of their construction, they would appear to be totally inadequate to contend against the rapids they are continually exposed to; they are of various lengths, from 12 to 30 feet, (the latter used only by the Hudson Bay Company) their breadth from four to six feet, diminishing to a point at each end, without distinction. The exterior is the bark of the birch tree, scarcely the eighth part of an inch in thickness; it is kept distended by thin hoops of white cedar, or

Lake, particularly on the British shore, where Quinté and Burlington bays stand conspicuous; the commodiousness of the latter (in the S. W. angle of the Lake) was impaired by a sand bank—but this disadvantage is now remedied by a canal, which renders this safe and capacious bay highly valuable; the former is secure, but its navigation rather intricate, owing to the windings and indentations of the shore of Prince Edward Peninsula, by which it is fronted, together with many islands which are clustered at the end of the lake, dividing its extremity into several channels¹.

other light elastic wood, and very thin shingles, as an inside lining, are placed between the hoops and the bark; the gunwale is a narrow lathe, to which the hoop and the bark are sewed with narrow strips of the roots of the white cedar tree; and the joinings in the bark are rendered waterproof by a species of gum, said to be collected from the wild cherry tree, which soon becomes perfectly hard; no iron work or nails are employed in their construction, and they are so light that the common sized ones are easily carried, for several miles, by a man of moderate strength; they are worked by paddles over the sides, and the dexterity of the Indians, in working them, is surprising: they, of course, push them forward, and not backward, as in the operation of rowing. The largest description will carry about five tons of merchandise, besides eight or ten men."

¹ Stoney and Grenadier islands are at the east end of Ontario; Wolfe, or Grand Island, is at the entrance of the St. Lawrence; and the celebrated Thousand Islands are just below Wolfe, or Grand Island,—which, by being placed at the commencement of the Cataraqui (Iroquois, or St. Lawrence) River, forms two channels leading into Kingston Harbour, bearing the names of the North, or Kingston Channel, and the South, or Carleton Island Channel.

Of the harbours, the most considerable, on the American side, is Sacket's Harbour on the S.E. shore, which is an excellent haven, well fortified, with extensive arsenals and excellent docks for the construction of the largest sized ships of war¹. On the English side, Toronto (until lately called York) and Kingston are the principal; of these it will be necessary, before proceeding farther, to offer a brief description²; the rather, as the former is the metropolitan city of Upper Canada.

TORONTO³, (Latitude 43.39 N. Longitude 79.36 W.) the infant capital of Upper Canada, is delightfully situate in the township of York, near the head of Lake Ontario, on the north side of an excellent harbour or elliptical basin of an area of eight or nine miles, formed by a long, low sandy peninsula or island, stretching from the land east of the town to

¹ One of the three-decker ships of war, built here by the Americans during the war, was 182 feet 8 inches keel, 212 feet on the lower gun deck, and 52 feet beam; thus the largest vessel of war was constructed on a fresh water lake: 800 shipwrights were employed 42 days in running up this immense vessel. At Ernest Town a steam-boat of 150 feet keel, and, of course, about 170 feet deck, was built some years ago.

² Presque Isle, or Newcastle Harbour, in the township of Grahame, is situate somewhat more than half way from Toronto to Kingston; it is well protected from winds, and almost encircled by a peninsula, which projects in a curve into the lake, forming a basin of sufficient depth for shipping, and affording good landing. The harbour is somewhat difficult of entrance. From Newcastle, eastward, the shore of Ontario is indented with bays and points of various sizes.

³ York, the former name, was recently changed to the original Indian name of the place, Toronto.

Gibraltar Point, abreast of a good fort¹. The town is laid out at right angles, with long and spacious streets, (King Street, the great thoroughfare is half a mile long,) the side paths well flagged, and some of the streets macadamised. It contains the principal buildings and public offices of the province, viz. : the Parliament House and Government offices, Government House, the College of Upper Canada, the Hospital, Court House, Gaol, Episcopalian, Presbyterian and Roman places of worship, and several Meeting Houses, the Upper Canada Bank, Law Society Hall, the Barracks, &c. The population is now about 11,000², composed of English, Irish, Scotch, native Upper Canadians, and a very few French Canadians. Little more than thirty years ago, the site, whereon Toronto now stands, and the whole country to the north and west of it, was a perfect wilderness—the land is now fast clearing—thickly settled by a robust and industrious European and European-descended

¹ The formation of the peninsula is extraordinary, which indeed would appear to have been a spot left dry at no distant date. In some places it is not more than 60 yards in breadth, but widening at the extremity to nearly a mile wide, and may be said to be a sand-bank slightly overgrown with grass,—the largest part intersected with extensive ponds, the constant resort of wild fowl. The east part of the harbour is bounded by an extensive marsh, through the north part of which the River Don runs. The soundings, in Toronto Harbour, are from two to four fathoms, mud and clay : it is secure in all storms, and a good light-house, 70 feet in elevation, at the western extremity of the beach, renders it a welcome haven to the midnight mariner.

² Official return of the population of the City and Liber-

population, blessed with health and competence, and on all sides indicating the rapid progress of civilization¹. The other British town of importance on this shore is—

KINGSTON, (distant from Toronto 184, and from Montreal 180 miles) in Lat. 44.8. Long. 76.40. W. is advantageously situate on the north bank of Lake Ontario at the head of the river St. Lawrence, and is separated from Points Frederick and Henry by a bay which extends a considerable distance to the N.W. beyond the town, where it receives the waters of a river flowing from the interior. Point

ties of Toronto, taken by the assessors in May and June, 1834.

Wards.	Males under 16.	Females under 16.	Males over 16.	Females over 16.	Grand Total.
St. David's .	722	680	1033	959	3394
St. Lawrence's	412	290	666	554	1922
St. Andrew's .	348	383	532	485	1748
St. Patrick's .	328	317	426	397	1462
St. George's .	125	123	240	228	716
Total . .	1935	1793	2897	2623	9248

To these numbers may be added strangers, emigrants, omissions, casual residents, tenants of the prison, and the soldiers in garrison, in all upwards of 1800 persons, giving an actual population of 11,000 souls within the city and liberties.

¹ Toronto (at that period York) was twice captured by the Americans, in April and August, 1813, owing to its defenceless state,—and a large ship of war, on the stocks, burnt. The Americans would not now find its capture such an easy task.

Frederick is a long narrow peninsula, extending about half a mile into the lake in a S. E. direction, distant from Kingston about three quarters of a mile on the opposite side of its bay. This peninsula forms the west side of a narrow and deep inlet called Navy Bay, from its being our chief naval depôt on Lake Ontario. The extremity of the point is surmounted by a strong battery, and there is a dock-yard with store-houses, &c.

Point Henry, forming the east side of Navy Bay, is a high narrow rocky ridge, extending into the lake in the same direction as Point Frederick. It is crowned by a fort, built on the extremity of the ridge, and occupying the highest point of ground in this part of Canada. The dock-yard, store-houses, slips for building ships of war, naval barracks, wharfs, &c. are on an extensive scale; during the war, a first-rate (the *St. Lawrence*) carrying 102 guns was built here, and in a case of emergency, a formidable fleet could in a very short time be equipped at Kingston in defence of British interests or honour.

Kingston, next to Quebec and Halifax, the strongest British post in America, and next to Quebec and Montreal, the first in commercial importance, has rapidly risen of late years, by becoming, through the means of the Rideau Canal, the main entrepôt between the trade of the Lower Province and all the settlements on the great lakes to the westward; and with the measures now in progress to render the *St. Lawrence* navigable between

Montreal and Lake Ontario¹, it may be expected to increase yet more rapidly : in 1828 its population amounted to 3,528—in 1834 to near 6,000.

The appearance of the north-east extremity of Ontario, at its junction with the St. Lawrence river at Kingston, is exceedingly beautiful, and it has obtained the poetical appellation of the 'Lake of the Thousand Isles.' As the St. Lawrence issues from Ontario, it is twelve miles wide, divided into two channels by Wolfe or Grand, or Long Island, which is seven miles broad, and the widest channel on the north side three miles and a half across.

¹ The number of steam-boats, on the Ontario Lake, is considerable; there are eight American, and twelve British steam-vessels employed on it in traffic and for passengers. During the winter the N.E. part of Ontario, from the Bay of Quinté to Sacket's Harbour, is frozen across; but the wider part of the lake is frozen only to a short distance from the shore. Lake Erie is frozen still less; the northern parts of Huron and Michigan more; and Superior is said to be frozen to a distance of 70 miles from its coasts. The navigation of Ontario closes in October; ice-boats are sometimes used when the ice is *glare* (smooth). One mentioned by Lt. De Roos, was 23 feet in length, resting on three skates of iron, one attached to each end of a strong crossbar, fixed under the fore part,—the remaining one to the stern, from the bottom of the rudder,—the mast and sail those of a common boat: when brought into play on the ice, she could sail (if it may be so termed) with fearful rapidity, nearly 23 miles an hour. One has been known to cross from Toronto to Fort George, or Niagara, a distance of 40 miles, in little more than three-quarters of an hour; but in addition to her speed before the wind, she is also capable of beating well up to windward,—requiring, however, an experienced hand to manage her, in consequence of the extreme sensibility of the rudder during her quick motion.

The second British township is Leeds, 32 miles below Kingston (at the mouth of the Gannanoqui river), which has an excellent harbour: the river continues narrowing down to Prescott, distant 62 miles from Kingston, 243 from Toronto, and 385 from Quebec. Prescott is well defined by its strong hold, Fort Wellington, which commands the river's navigation.

A few miles below Prescott the rapids of the St. Lawrence commence; and from thence to Montreal the river is navigable only for boats, rafts, &c. and even then with no inconsiderable danger: the most difficult to pass is the Long Sault, in front of Osna-burgh above Cornwall (46 miles from Montreal); it is about nine miles long, and intersected by several islands, through whose channels the water rushes with great velocity, so that boats are carried through it, or on it, at the rate of 27 miles an hour: at the foot of the Rapid, the water takes a sudden leap over a slight precipice, whence its name.

The rapids at the Cedars at La Chine, on approaching Montreal, are not less dangerous, but the skill of the Canadian boatmen enables them in general to pass these formidable torrents with safety¹.

¹ The statements laid before Parliament thus enumerate and describe the five rapids of the St. Lawrence, which are impassable by steam, and occur between Montreal and Kingston, a distance, by the St. Lawrence River, of 171 miles, and by the Rideau Canal (*via* St. Ann's) 267 miles. The rapids vary in rapidity, intricacy, depth, and width of channel,—and in extent from half a mile to nine miles. The *Cedar Rapid*, 24 miles from *La Chine*, is nine miles long, very intricate, running from nine to twelve miles an hour, and in some places only from nine

Having now given the reader a connected description of the principal physical features of Upper Canada, I mean its great lakes and rivers¹, I shall, before passing to another section, allude briefly to its canals, which have given rise to so much conversation and debate in the Old World.

THE RIDEAU CANAL.—This far-famed undertaking, which is not, properly speaking, a canal, but rather a succession of raised waters by means of dams, with natural lakes intervening, commences at Entrance Bay, a small bay in the Ottawa, 128 miles from Montreal, and 150 from Kingston, in latitude north 45.30, longitude west 76.50,—about a mile below the Falls of Chaudiere, and one mile and a half

to ten feet water in the channel. The *Coteau du Lac Rapid*, six miles above the former, is two miles long, equally intricate in the channel, and in some places only sixteen feet wide. *Long Sault*, 45 miles above the preceding, is nine or ten miles long, with generally the same depth of water throughout. From thence to Prescott is 41 miles of shoal water running from six to eight miles an hour, and impassable by steam-boats. Then the *Rapid Du Plas*, half a mile long, and *Rapid Galoose*, one and half a mile long, intervene. It has been suggested, that a navigable channel should be made through these rapids, between Montreal and Prescott, so as to admit all those ships which now discharge their cargoes at Quebec and Montreal; the difficulties would be great, but they are not insurmountable; and the estimated cost is £1,500,000, which it is thought a private company would undertake, with the prospect of repayment from tolls. The Erie Canal cost about 9,000,000 dollars, and it now yields an annual income of more than 1,000,000 dollars.

¹ I do not here allude to the Ottawa, which has been given under the description of the Lower Province.

above the point where the Rideau River falls into the Ottawa. From Entrance Bay the canal is entered by eight locks; it then passes through a natural gully, crosses Dow's Swamp—which is flooded by means of a mound—crosses Peter's gully by means of an aqueduct, and joins the Rideau River at the Hog's Back, about six miles from Entrance Bay. At the Hog's Back there is a dam 45 feet high, and 400 long, which, by throwing back the river, converts about seven miles of rapids into still, navigable water. The canal rises into the river by means of a lock. A series of locks and dams now commences, with occasional embankments.

There are a dam and lock at the Black Rapids, 138 miles from Montreal; a dam, three locks, and two embankments, at Long Island Rapids, which render the river navigable for twenty-four miles, to Barret's Rapids, 167 miles from Montreal; eight dams and fourteen locks bring the canal to Olive's Ferry, 210 miles from Montreal, where the Rideau Lake contracts to 463 feet wide, and a ferry connects the road between Perth and Brockville. At the Upper Narrows, 16 miles further, the Rideau Lake contracts again to about 80 feet across, over which a dam is thrown, with a lock of four feet lift, forming the Upper Rideau Lake into a summit pond of 291 feet above Entrance Bay, in the Ottawa; six miles further is the isthmus, which separates the Upper Rideau Lake from Mud Lake, the source of the River Cataraqui. The canal is cut through this isthmus, which is one mile and a half wide; five

miles lower down is the Isthmus Clear Lake, 330 feet wide, through which a cut is made, to avoid the rapids of the natural channel.

To Cranberry Marsh, 17 miles from Isthmus Clear Lake, 255 miles from Montreal, and 23 from Kingston, there are three dams and six locks. The Marsh is about 78 feet above the level of Kingston Harbour, and about eight miles long. Besides flowing into the Cataraqui river, the waters of this marsh or lake burst out at White Fish Fall, and flow into the Gananoqui River, which is the waste weir for regulating the level of the water in the Rideau Lake (the summit pond); thus the water in the whole line of canal, whether in times of flood or draught, is kept at a steady height. At Brewer's Upper and Lower Mills, 18 and 17 miles from Kingston, there are three dams and three locks; and at Kingston Mills, five miles from Kingston, one dam and four locks. The Canal, or Cataraqui River, falls into Kingston Bay at these mills, at a distance from Montreal of 273 miles.

The Canal now described opens, it will be perceived, a water communication between Kingston and the Ottawa, a distance of 132 miles, by connecting together several pieces of water lying in that direction, viz., Kingston Mill-stream, Cranberry Lake, Mud Lake, Rideau Lake and River, the length of the cuts not exceeding 20 miles. The difference of level is 445 feet; about 20 miles are excavated, some through rocks. There are 47 locks, which are in length 142 feet, in breadth 33, and with a water depth of five feet, which admit vessels under 125 tons. There was either sad blundering in the esti-

mate, or gross mismanagement in the expenditure on this canal, the original estimate for which was but £169,000,—the next estimate, before the plan of enlarging the locks was adopted¹, amounted to £486,000, the addition of the locks raised the estimate to £762,673; but it may now be stated, that the total expenditure will not be short of one million sterling.

The canal is certainly a noble piece of work, though completed at a heavy cost, which I fear there is little probability of its repaying, unless in the event of a war with the United States; a contingency which suggested the propriety of cutting, or rather making, the Rideau, in order that the water communication between Upper and Lower Canada might be beyond the controul of the Americans, who possess half the River St. Lawrence, down to the parallel of 45., as well as half of the Great Lakes, and by the possession of Barnhart's Island, in the St. Lawrence, completely command the navigation of the river between the two provinces². Should the project now on foot of improving the navigation over the rapids between Montreal and Kingston, before adverted to, be carried into full effect, the tolls on the Rideau Canal will be diminished.

Some good, however, has resulted, both in a political and social point of view, from opening the Ri-

¹ The locks were originally planned upon a scale to correspond with those on La Chine Canal, *i.e.* 100 feet by 20; these dimensions were subsequently increased to 142 feet in length by 33 in width, with a depth of five feet water; hence a considerable augmentation of expense.

² The tolls on the Rideau and Ottawa belong to Government.

deau :—1st. the Americans can no longer hold out to us the threat of intercepting our water communication between Upper and Lower Canada ; and whatever adds to the independence of a nation is of the utmost importance¹ : 2ndly, when the Rideau Canal was commenced, in 1816, there was a population of 1,900 in the country ; now the canal drains 3000 square miles,—and the settlements, in the vicinity of the canal, have a population of upwards of 20,000.

The WELLAND CANAL connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario. It was not undertaken by government, but by a company incorporated by the Legislature in 1825. The canal communicates with Lake Ontario by the Twelve-mile Creek, and is conducted over the range of hills forming the barrier of Lake Erie, at the Falls of Niagara, by means of locks, until it meets the Chippawa at eight miles and a half from its mouth ; it ascends the Chippawa about eleven miles, joins the Ouse upon Lake Erie at about one mile and a half from its mouth ; the shifting bar at the entrance of the Ouse being remedied by extending piers into deep water beyond the bar. The length of the canal is 41 miles, its width 56 feet, and its depth $8\frac{1}{2}$: the summit level is 330 feet, the ascending locks are 37 in number (made of wood), 22 feet wide, and 100 feet long. The shares are in number 20,024, and their value £250,300, of which the government of Upper Canada hold £107,500. The whole sum expended by the colonists themselves

¹ The Americans recently set up a claim to the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, from the lakes to the ocean.

will be about half a million sterling. There is little doubt that as the population increases, a fair return will be yielded for the capital expended¹.

The GRENVILLE CANAL consists of three sections, one at the Long Sault on the Ottawa—another at the fall called the Chûte à Blondeau, 60 miles from Montreal and 218 from Kingston—and a third at the Carillon Rapids, 56 miles from Montreal and 222 from Kingston, opening into the Lake of the Two Mountains, through which an uninterrupted navigation is maintained by steam-boats to La Chine, nine miles above the City of Montreal. This canal renders the navigation of the Ottawa, between the Rideau and Montreal, complete. All the locks on the Carillon and on the Chûte à Blondeau are of the same size as on the Rideau; but on a part of the Grenville Canal, which was commenced before the large scale was adopted, some locks, and a part of the cuttings will only admit boats twenty feet wide; the locks on La Chine also are calculated for boats only twenty feet wide; the navigation for boats above twenty feet wide is interrupted at the Grenville Canal, and if large boats be used on the Rideau, and on the higher part of the Ottawa, all goods must be unshipped on arriving at the Grenville Canal, and be either conveyed by portage, or removed to smaller boats.

The distance from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to By Town, where the Rideau River joins the Ottawa,

¹ One hundred and seventy-nine vessels passed up this canal from 25th May to 6th July, 1837.

is about 150 miles; from By Town to the Grenville Canal, 64 miles—total 214 miles, through the whole of which line, the locks and cuttings are of a size to admit steam boats 134 feet long and 33 feet wide, and drawing five feet of water.

The Montreal communication with the Ottawa, by the canal between the former place and Lake St. Louis, at La Chine, near Montreal¹, is termed

LA CHINE CANAL;—it is 28 feet wide at the bottom, 48 at the water line, has five feet depth of water, and a towing path; the whole fall is 42 feet, with the locks: the length is about seven miles. It is the property of a company; was begun in 1821, completed in three years at a cost of £137,000, which was defrayed by the company, slightly assisted by government; in return for which aid the public service is exempt from toll. (See Commerce.)

By means of the great and useful works just mentioned, a large extent of country is opened up to the industry of the British settlers: there is continuous steam-boat communication in Upper Canada for about 460 miles, viz. from the Grenville Canal on the Ottawa, to Niagara². Many other canals are now in contemplation, such as that projected between

¹ *St. Anne's*.—A canal is proposed across the west extremity of the Island of Montreal, near the town of St. Anne's, to surmount the rapids.

² The value of canals and steam navigation may be judged of from the fact, that, in 1812, the news of the declaration of war against Great Britain, by the United States, did not reach the post of Michilimackinac (1107 miles from Quebec) in a shorter time than two months; the same place is now within less than ten days' journey from the Atlantic.

the Bay of Quinté and Lake Huron, through Lake Simcoe, which will render us quite independent of the Americans on the Detroit River. The Thames is also to be made navigable for steam-boats, from Chatham up to the Port of London : and if rail-roads do not take the place of canals, I have no doubt the greater part of Upper Canada will, in a few years, be intersected by them. I recommend the latter to the Canadians in preference to rail-roads, as by their means the country will be drained, and thus rendered more fertile and more healthy¹.

¹ A rail-road is now projected from Port Amherstburg to Sarnia or Chatham, a distance of 146 miles : the legislature of Upper Canada has granted by way of loan, and on the security of the Gore, London, and Western districts £200,000, redeemable in twenty years. When this work is completed, to journey from New York to the foot of Lake Huron may be accomplished in fifty hours : the distance through Buffalo is 890 miles, and through Hamilton but 632. The cost per mile is upwards of £2000. The Canadian government make the loans in thrice the proportion of subscribed capital by the shareholders.

CHAPTER III.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY OF THE CANADAS, SOIL,
CLIMATE, &c.

IN giving the geological features of our colonies, I beg to be understood as doing no more than registering such facts and observations as have yet been proved or made, in order that general views may be substantiated or refuted by a more extended knowledge of the surface of our globe. I would further beg to direct the attention of my readers to the circumstance, that the geology of a country not only indicates the fertility of the soil, but also materially influences the climate in regard to the health of our species.

Following the arrangement adopted in the preceding chapter, I begin with the geology, mineralogy, and soil, of Lower Canada.

There are in America as manifest traces of an universal deluge as on the lofty Himalaya chain: boulder-stones are common all over the country in vast quantities; sometimes they are found rounded, and piled in heaps to an immense height, on extensive horizontal beds of limestone, as if swept there by the action of water; shells of various kinds are met with, in particular fresh-water clams, cockles, and periwinkles especially are in abundance; masses of the latter have been found several hundred feet

above the level of Lake Ontario. In the vicinity of large rivers, and in many instances remote from them, *undulations* of rocks are seen, exactly similar to what are found in the beds of rapids where the channels are waved¹. On the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, detached boulder-stones, different from those found inland, of an enormous size (20 tons weight) are met with; they are very hard, of a blackish grey colour, without veins, but with pointed particles of a brilliant nature: how they came there it is difficult to say, the rocks of the gulf shore being of a slaty limestone².

¹ The wavy rocks are termed provincially *ice shoves*.

² At a recent meeting of the Geological Society, a communication was read from Captain Bayfield, at present engaged in the Ordnance surveys, up the river St. Lawrence, on the transportation of rocks by ice. In that river, when the water froze, it tore up large boulders of rock, which were carried away when the ice became detached. It was always found necessary to cut the anchors out of the ice, in order to prevent their being lost, which they would be if suffered to remain. Large icebergs were known to come down to very low latitudes, with large boulders of stone upon them, and which were probably brought from Baffin's Bay, or the coasts of Labrador. In the course of a conversation which subsequently ensued, the President (Mr. Lyall) gave it as his opinion that the immense masses of stone which he had seen in his journey through Sweden, found for upwards of 1,500 miles, had been deposited in this manner; and he was further confirmed in it from the authority of Dr. Beck, that large masses were occasionally brought over in this manner from the opposite coast of Jutland. Some of these stones had in America been brought down to as low a latitude as that of Geneva, and it was probable that all the enormous blocks which were seen on the shores of the Baltic were deposited in a similar manner. In further confirmation of the above, Captain Belcher, who was in the room, stated, that

The fossil organic remains are numerous, and consist of productæ, terebratulæ, orthoceratites, trilobites, and enerinites,—these are found in the surface or upper strata, but rarely below. These records of a former animal existence, distinct from any known in the present day, are intimately blended with the limestone in which they are entombed¹.

That the whole country has been subjected to some violent convulsion, subsequent to the Deluge, would appear from the singular contortions of the rivers, and the immense chasms found in mountains, from the indications of volcanic eruptions at St. Paul's Bay and north of Quebec, as also from the vast masses of alluvial rocks met with on the surface of the earth, having the appearance of vitrification. I think, however, it may be fairly assumed that the American Continent is of more recent formation than that of Europe or Asia, or that it was covered for unknown ages by the waters of the great deep.

So far as we know, the geological structure of Canada exhibits a granite country, accompanied with calcareous rocks of a soft texture, and in horizontal strata. The prevailing rocks in the Alleghany mountains are granite in vast strata, but sometimes in boulders between the mountains and the shore; grey—when engaged in a survey on the coast of America, he had seen an iceberg, of about half a mile in length, covered with earth, and with a tree upon it, and that he had known stones to be brought as low as 44°. The cliffs in the Bay of Ascholtz were supposed to be formed entirely by these deposits.

¹ Lieut. Baddeley, Royal Engineers, remarks this in reference to *Upper* Canada, but it is equally applicable to the Lower Province.

wacke and clay slate also occur with limestone occasionally; various other rocks, usually detached, present themselves. The lower islands of the St. Lawrence are mere inequalities of the vast granite strata which occasionally emerge above the level of the river; the Kamouraska islands, and the Penguins in particular, exhibit this appearance; and in Kamouraska and St. Anne's parishes, large masses of primitive granite rise in sharp conical hills (one is 500 feet high), in some places with smooth sides and scarcely a fissure, in others full of fissures and clothed with pine trees which have taken root in these—the whole country appearing as if the St. Lawrence had at a former period entirely covered the land. At St. Roche, the post road leads for more than a mile under a perpendicular ridge of granite 300 feet high. The banks of the St. Lawrence are in many places composed of a schistus substance in a decaying or mouldering condition, but still in every quarter granite is found in strata more or less inclined to the horizon, but never parallel to it. In the Gaspé district there have been obtained numerous and beautiful specimens of the quartz family, including a great variety of cornelians, agates, opals, and jaspers: coal indications have also been traced.

The whole north shore of the St. Lawrence from Quebec to its mouth, and round the coast of Labrador, offers a rich field for the mineralogist; much of the coast bordering on the gulf being primitive, or of the earlier formations. According to some observers, the north coast below the St. Lawrence exhibits trap rocks, clay slate, various detached rocks,

and granite occasionally; the latter being supposed to prevail in the interior of the country, forming the base of the Labrador mountains and the coast of Quebec. Cape Tourment (30 miles from Quebec) is a round massive granite mountain about 1000 feet high, being a ramification of the rugged interior chain of highlands. The immediate bed of the fall of Montmorenci is a horizontal shelf of dark grey limestone, of the kind called primitive or crystallized. Except in the bogs or marshes, rocks obtrude on the surface in all quarters, and in many parts there exist deep fissures from six inches to two feet wide, as if they had been split by the action of fire, or some volcanic shock. The Indians say some of these rents extend several miles in length, about a foot broad, and from forty to fifty feet deep: they are not unfrequently hidden from view by various creeping shrubs, and form dangerous pitfalls.

This would seem to confirm the following account of a terrific earthquake, which appears in a manuscript in the Jesuits' College at Quebec:—‘On the 5th of February, 1663, about half-past five o'clock in the evening, a great rushing noise was heard throughout the whole extent of Canada. This noise caused the people to run out of their houses into the streets, as if their habitations had been on fire; but instead of flames or smoke, they were surprised to see the walls reeling backwards and forwards, and the stones moving, as if they were detached from each other. The bells sounded by the repeated shocks. The roofs of the buildings bent down, first on one side and then on the other. The timbers,

rafters, and planks cracked. The earth trembled violently, and caused the stakes of the palisades and palings to dance, in a manner that would have been incredible had we not actually seen it in many places. It was at this moment every one ran out of doors. Then were to be seen animals flying in every direction ; children crying and screaming in the streets ; men and women, seized with affright, stood horror-struck with the dreadful scene before them, unable to move, and ignorant where to fly for refuge from the tottering walls and trembling earth, which threatened every instant to crush them to death, or sink them into a profound and immeasurable abyss. Some threw themselves on their knees in the snow, crossing their breasts and calling on their saints to relieve them from the dangers with which they were surrounded. Others passed the rest of this dreadful night in prayer ; for the earthquake ceased not, but continued at short intervals, with a certain undulating impulse, resembling the waves of the ocean ; and the same qualmish sensations, or sickness at the stomach was felt during the shocks as is experienced in a vessel at sea.

‘ The violence of the earthquake was greatest in the forests, where it appeared as if there was a battle raging between the trees ; for not only their branches were destroyed, but even their trunks are said to have been detached from their places, and dashed against each other with inconceivable violence and confusion—so much so, that the Indians, in their figurative manner of speaking, declared that all the forests were drunk. The war also seemed to be

carried on between the mountains, some of which were torn from their beds and thrown upon others, leaving immense chasms in the places from whence they had issued, and the very trees with which they were covered sunk down, leaving only their tops above the surface of the earth ; others were completely overturned, their branches buried in the earth, and the roots only remained above ground. During this general wreck of nature, the ice, upwards of six feet thick, was rent and thrown up in large pieces, and from the openings, in many parts, there issued thick clouds of smoke, or fountains of dirt and sand, which spouted up to a very considerable height. The springs were either choked up, or impregnated with sulphur—many rivers were totally lost ; others were diverted from their course, and their waters entirely corrupted. Some of them became yellow, others red, and the great river of St. Lawrence appeared entirely white, as far down as *Tadoussac*. This extraordinary phenomenon must astonish those who know the size of the river, and the immense body of water in various parts, which must have required such an abundance of matter to whiten it. They write from *Montreal* that during the earthquake, they plainly saw the stakes of the picketing or palisades jump up as if they had been dancing ; and that of two doors in the same room, one opened and the other shut of their own accord ; that the chimneys and tops of the houses bent like branches of trees agitated with the wind ; that when they went to walk they felt the earth following them, and rising at every step they took, sometimes sticking against

the soles of their feet and other things in a very forcible and surprising manner.

‘ From Three Rivers they write, that the first shock was the most violent, and commenced with a noise resembling thunder. The houses were agitated in the same manner as the tops of trees during a tempest, with a noise as if fire was crackling in the garrets. The shock lasted half an hour or rather better, though its greatest force was properly not more than a quarter of an hour; and we believe there was not a single shock which did not cause the earth to open either more or less.

‘ As for the rest, we have remarked, that though this earthquake continued almost without intermission, yet it was not always of an equal violence. Sometimes it was like the pitching of a large vessel which dragged heavily at her anchors: and it was this motion which occasioned many to have a giddiness in their heads, and qualmishness at their stomachs. At other times the motion was hurried and irregular, creating sudden jerks, some of which were extremely violent; but the most common was a slight tremulous motion, which occurred frequently with little noise. Many of the French inhabitants and Indians, who were eye-witnesses to the scene, state, that a great way up the river of Trois Rivières, about eighteen miles below Quebec, the hills which bordered the river on either side, and which were of a prodigious height, were torn from their foundations, and plunged into the river, causing it to change its course, and spread itself over a large tract of land recently cleared: the broken earth mixed with the waters, and

for several months changed the colour of the great river St. Lawrence, into which that of Trois Rivières disembogues itself. In the course of this violent convulsion of nature, lakes appeared where none ever existed before ; mountains were overthrown, swallowed up by the gaping, or precipitated into adjacent rivers, leaving in their places frightful chasms or level plains ; falls and rapids were changed into gentle streams, and gentle streams into falls and rapids. Rivers in many parts of the country sought other beds, or totally disappeared. The earth and the mountains were entirely split and rent in innumerable places, creating chasms and precipices whose depths have never yet been ascertained. Such devastation was also occasioned in the woods, that more than a thousand acres in our neighbourhood were completely overturned ; and where but a short time before nothing met the eye but one immense forest of trees, now were to be seen extensive cleared lands, apparently cut up by the plough.

‘ At Tadoussac (about 150 miles below Quebec on the north side) the effect of the earthquake was not less violent than in other places ; and such a heavy shower of volcanic ashes fell in that neighbourhood, particularly in the river St. Lawrence, that the waters were as violently agitated as during a tempest. (The Indians say that a vast volcano exists in Labrador.) Near St. Paul’s Bay, (about 50 miles below Quebec on the north side) a mountain, about a quarter of a league in circumference, situated on the shore of the St. Lawrence, was precipitated into the river, but as if it had only made a plunge, it rose from the bottom,

and became a small island, forming with the shore a convenient harbour, well sheltered from all winds. Lower down the river, towards Point Alouttes, an entire forest of considerable extent was loosened from the main bank, and slid into the river St. Lawrence, where the trees took fresh root. There are three circumstances, however, which have rendered this extraordinary earthquake particularly remarkable: the first is its duration, it having continued from February to August, that is to say, more than six months almost without intermission! It is true, the shocks were not always equally violent. In several places, as towards the mountains behind Quebec, the thundering noise and trembling motion continued successively for a considerable time. In others, as towards Tadoussac, the shock continued generally for two or three days at a time with much violence.

‘ The second circumstance relates to the extent of this earthquake, which we believe was universal throughout the whole of *New France*, for we learn that it was felt from l’ Isle Persée and Gaspé, which are situated at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, to beyond Montreal, as also in New England, Acadia, and other places more remote. As far as it has come to our knowledge, this earthquake extended more than 600 miles in length, and about 300 in breadth. Hence 180,000 square miles of land were convulsed in the same day, and at the same moment.

‘ The third circumstance, which appears the most remarkable of all, regards the extraordinary protection of Divine Providence, which has been extended to us and our habitations; for we have seen

nearus the large openings and chasms which the earthquake occasioned, and the prodigious extent of country which has been either totally lost or hideously convulsed, without our losing either man, woman, or child, or even having a hair of their heads touched.'

As Quebec is approached, a reddish or dark clay slate appears as the prevailing rock, and this forms the bed of the St. Lawrence, to Kingston and Niagara : boulders of granite, limestone, sandstone, sienite trap, and marble occur as detached rocks in the same extensive region. Montreal mountain is of the trap family, accompanied by limestone.

The ridge of rocky country running N.E. and S.W. through the Newcastle and Midland districts towards Ottawa, at a distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the north shore of Lake Ontario, and the course of the St. Lawrence, is rich in silver, lead, copper, and iron. The rocks composing the hills on the north shore of the Saguenay river are in some places so strongly impregnated with iron, as to render the compass extremely deceptive from its frequent variations.

Among the mountains to the N.W. of the St. Lawrence, have been obtained iron felspar, hornblende, native iron ore, granite, (white, grey and red) and a kind of stone very common in Canada, called *Limestone Granite*, it being limestone that calcines to powder, yet by fracture apparently granite : marble is in abundance and plumbago of the finest quality. The iron mines of St. Maurice have long been celebrated, and the metal prepared with wood is considered equal if not superior to Swedish. There is

no doubt that Canada is rich in copper, lead, tin, and other mineral productions.

The beautiful spar, peculiar to Labrador, whence it derives its name, has long been celebrated ; some specimens are of an ultra marine, or brilliant sky-blue colour—others of a greenish yellow—of a red—and of a fine pearly grey tint. Marble of excellent quality and of different hues, white, green, and variegated, is found in several parts of the country ; and limestone, so useful to the agriculturist, almost everywhere abounds.

The quantity of good soil in Canada, compared with the extent of country, is equal to that of any part of the globe ; and there yet remains location for many millions of the human race. The best lands are those on which the *hardest* timber is found—such as oak, maple, beech, elm, black-walnut, &c. though bass-wood when of luxuriant growth, and pine when large, clean, and tall, also indicate good land. Many of the *cedar swamps*, where the cedars are not stunted, and mingled with ash of a large growth, contain a very rich soil, and are calculated to form the finest hemp grounds in the world. So great is the fertility of the soil in Canada, that fifty bushels of wheat per acre are frequently produced on a farm, where the stumps of trees, which probably occupy an eighth of the surface, have not been eradicated—some instances of sixty bushels per acre occur, and near York in Upper Canada, 100 *bushels of wheat were obtained from a single acre !* In some districts, wheat has been raised successively on the same ground for 20 years without manure.

The soil on the promontory where Quebec stands, is light and sandy in some parts, in others it is a mixture of loam and clay; beneath the soil a black, silicious slaty rock is everywhere met with, resting generally on a bed of granite. Above Richelieu Rapids, where the mountains commence retreating to the south and north, the greater part of the soil of the low lands is apparently of alluvial formation, consisting of a light and loose blackish earth, ten or twelve inches in depth, lying on a stratum of cold clay.

The soil of Montreal island is generally alluvial, consisting in many places of light sand and loam, and in others, of a stiff clay, on a horizontal stratum of limestone with animal remains; the substratum granite being intersected by black slaty rock, similar to that of Quebec.

Along the Ottawa there is a great extent of alluvial soil, and many districts of fertile land are daily brought into view, which were before unknown.

UPPER CANADA.—Our knowledge of the geological structure of the country bordering on the great lakes, is more minute than has been detailed under Lower Canada. Beyond Lake Superior, or, as La Hontan called it, “the fag end of the world,” we know little or nothing; the country is exceedingly dreary—miles of ponds and marshes, where the mud is knee-deep, are succeeded by open, dry sandy deserts, terminating in forests of hemlock and spruce, and then again a regular alternation of swamps, mud, bog, windfalls, and stagnant water; and in the course of many miles, there is seldom a dry spot to be found

for a resting place : in winter strong whiskey is frozen to the consistence of honey, and *in the height of summer*, the mercury is down to 36° F. at sunrise. To begin therefore with—

Lake Superior.—The whole south coast of this vast inland sea is stated by Mr. Schoolcraft, an American gentleman, who formed part of a Government Expedition from New York, to be a secondary sandstone, through which the granite on which it rests, occasionally appears ; chalcedony, cornelian, jasper, opal, agate, sardonyx, zeolith, and serpentine (all silicious except the last two), with iron, lead and copper are found imbedded in it. The sand hills west of the Grand Marais, present to the lake, for nine miles, a steep acclivity 300 feet high, composed of light yellow silicious sand, in three layers 150, 80, and 70 feet thick ; the last mentioned uppermost, and like the lowest, pure, while the middle bed has many pebbles of granite, limestone, hornblende, and quartz. By the subsidence of the waters of Lakes Superior and Huron, occasioned, Mr. Lyell thinks, by the partial destruction of their barriers at some unknown period, beds of sand, 150 feet thick, are exposed ; below which are seen beds of clay, enclosing shells of the very species which now inhabit the lakes.

Dr. Bigsby, who minutely examined Lake Superior, observed, that a red sandstone for the most part horizontal, predominates on the south shore, resting in places on granite. Amygdaloid occupies a very large tract in the north, stretching from Cape Verd to the Grand Portage, profusely intermingled with argillaceous and other porphyries, sienite, trappose-

greenstone, sandstone, and conglomerates. Trappose-greenstone is the prevailing rock from Thunder Mountain westward, and gives rise to the pilastered precipices in the vicinity of Fort William. Part of the north and east shore is the seat of older formations, viz. sienite, stratified greenstone, more or less chloritic, and alternating five times with vast beds of granite, the general direction east, with a north or perpendicular dip.

Great quantities of the older shell limestone are found strewn in rolled masses on the beach, from Point Marmoaze to Grand Portage; its organic remains are trilobites, orthoceratites, enerinites, productæ, madrepores, terebratulæ, &c. At Michipicoton Bay was found a loose mass of pitchstone porphyry, the opposite angle being trappose.

Copper abounds in various parts of the country; in particular, some large and brilliant specimens have been found in the angle between Lake Superior and Michigan. At the Coppermine River (Ontanagon 300 miles from the Sault de St. Marie), the copper, which is in a pure and malleable state, lies in connexion with a body of serpentine rock, the face of which it almost completely overlays; it is also disseminated in masses and grains throughout the substance of the rock. Henry and others speak of a rock of pure copper, from which the former cut off an 100lbs. weight. Mr. Schoolcraft examined the remainder of the mass in 1820, and found it of irregular shape,—in its greatest length 3 feet 8 inches, greatest breadth 3 feet 4 inches, making about 11 cubic feet, and containing, of metallic matter, about

2,200 lbs.; but there were many marks of chisels and axes upon it, as if a great deal had been carried off. The surface of the block, unlike most metals which have suffered a long exposure to the atmosphere, presents a metallic brilliancy.

Lake Huron.—The almost uniformly level shores of Lake Huron present few objects of interest to the geologist: secondary limestone, filled with the usual reliquiæ, constitutes the great mass of structure along the coast. Here and there are found detached blocks of granite, and other primitive rocks; the only simple minerals found by Mr. Schoolcraft were pieces of chalcedony in one place, and in another, crystals of staurolite. Around Saganaw Bay, the primitive formation appears to approach nearer the surface; the secondary limestone then gives place to sandstone, which disintegrates, and forms sand-banks and beaches as on the sea shore.

With the exception of spots of sand opposite the mouth of *Spanish*¹ and other rivers, the shore north of Lake Huron is composed of naked rocks: but on the south-east, and at the naval station of Penetanguishine, there are several undulating alluvial platforms several hundred feet high, rounded into knolls, intersected by water-courses, and extending to the north-west shores of Lake Simcoe, and in fact, to Lakes Erie and Ontario.

Lakes Huron, Michigan, and Superior have evidently been at one time considerably higher than they are at the present day, and it would appear

¹ This river, the second in size that falls into Lake Huron, was discovered so recently as 1820, by Captain Bayfield.

that the subsidence of their waters has not been effected by slow drainage, but by the repeated destruction of their barriers : indeed these three lakes have evidently at some remote period formed a single body of water, as is evinced by their comparatively low dividing ridge, by the existence, in Batchewine Bay, of numerous rolled masses which are *in situ* in the north-west parts of Lake Huron, and, among many other indications, by the very large boulders of the Huggewong granite, and the greenstone of Michipicoton, strewn in company with rocks of Lake Huron, over the Portage of St. Mary's ; their original situation being at least 100 miles north from where they are found at present. Great alluvial beds of fresh-water shells are found in the east of Lake Huron, whose appearance argues them to be of post-diluvian formation, effected while the waters were still of immense height and extent.

Lake St. Clair.—The entrance of the Lake of St. Clair affords the first indication of the change in the geological formation, observed as we proceed through the lakes ; pebbles of granite, hornblende rock, and silicious sand are seen on the edge of the water, washed out from below the alluvion of the banks. According to the Editor of an able American Review, this is probably very near the limits where the materials of the primitive formation show themselves beneath the secondary, nothing of them being seen on the American side of Lake Erie ; but around St. Clair, masses of granite, mica slate, and quartz, are found in abundance.

Lake Erie.—The chasm, at Niagara Falls, affords

a clear indication of the geology of the country. The different strata are, first, limestone; next, fragile slate; and lastly, sandstone. The uppermost and lowest of these compose the great secondary formation of a part of Canada, and nearly the whole of the United States, occupying the whole basin of the Mississippi, and extending from it between the lakes and the Alleghany ridge of mountains, as far eastward as the Mohawk, between which the slate is often interposed, as at Niagara, and throughout the State of New York generally. At Niagara, the stratum of slate is nearly forty feet thick, and almost as fragile as shale, crumbling so much as to sink the superincumbent limestone; and thus verifying to some extent, the opinion that a retrocession of the falls has been going on for ages.

Lake Ontario.—The subsoil around Lake Ontario is limestone, resting on granite. The rocks about Kingston are usually a limestone of very compact structure, and light blueish grey colour,—a fracture often approaching the conchoidal, a slight degree of translucency on a thin edge; and after percussion, the odour of flint is perceived rather than that of bitumen. The lowermost limestones are in general more silicious than those above them; and so much is this the case, that, in some places, a conglomerated character is given to the rock by the intrusion of pieces of quartz or hornstone. It is worthy of remark, that both angular and rounded masses of felspar rock, which usually underlies limestone, (or, if absent, is supplied by a substratum in which hornblende predominates) are imbedded and isolated in

the limestone, demonstrating the latter to have been at one time in a state of fluidity.

The limestone formation is stratified horizontally, its dip being greatest when nearest to the elder rock on which it reposes, and by which it would appear to have been upraised, subsequently to the solidification of its strata; the thickness of which, like the depth of the soil, varies from a few feet to a few inches. Shale occurs as amongst most limestones; and, in some places so intimately blended with the latter, as to cause it to fall to pieces on exposure to the atmosphere. The minerals as yet noticed, in this formation, are chert or hornstone, basanite, chlorite, calcareous spar, barytes, sulphate of strontian, sulphuret of iron, and sulphuret of zinc. Genuine granite is seldom or never found.

The soils of Upper Canada are various; that which predominates, is composed of brown clay and loam, with different proportions of marl intermixed; this compound soil prevails principally in the fertile country between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa; towards the north shore of Lake Ontario it is more clayey, and extremely productive. The substratum throughout these districts is a bed of horizontal limestone, which in some places rises to the surface. The colour is of different shades of blue, interspersed with grains of white quartz. It is used for building, and is manufactured into excellent lime by an easy process of calcination; and it enriches and invigorates the soil when sprinkled over it. The limestone of Niagara differs from the foregoing in colour and quality, being grey, and not so easily calcined into

lime. The Newcastle district lying between the upper section of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, is a rich black mould ; which also prevails throughout the East Riding of York, and on the banks of the Ouse or Grand River, and the Thames.

At Toronto the soil is fertile ; but stones are scarce for common use, which is also the case in some townships bordering Lakes Erie, St. Clair, and the Detroit, thus demonstrating the alluvial nature of the territory. A light sandy soil predominates round the head of Lake Ontario.

Mineralogy.—I have already adverted to the native copper found on the banks of Lake Superior, on the Coppermine River : iron is abundant in various parts of the province, particularly at Charlotteville, about eight miles from Lake Erie ; it is of that description which is denominated shot ore, a medium between what is called mountain and bog ore, and the metal made is of a superior quality. At the Marmora Iron Works, about thirty-two miles north of the Bay of Quinté, on the River Trent, and which are situate on an extensive white rocky flat, bare of stones, and apparently in former times the bottom of a river, exhibiting, like many other parts of Canada, different ridges and water-courses ; the iron ore is rich to an excess, some specimens yielding ninety-two per cent. ; it is found on the surface, requiring only to be raised up : there is abundance of the requisite materials of limestone and pine fuel in the vicinity. Magnetic oxyde, red oxyde, mountain, or lake ore, and other varieties are met with at this place. Black lead is found also at Marmora, on the shores of the Ganna-

noqui Lake, and in the eastern division of the colony, where it is said some silver mines are known to the Indians ; small specimens of a metal like silver have been found at Marmora.

Two mineral springs flow at Scarborough, fifteen miles east of Toronto. Above the Niagara Falls is a phenomenon, termed the Burning Spring, the water of which is in a constant state of ebullition, black, warm, and emitting so large a portion of sulphuretted hydrogen gas as to light a mill, which stood at the place, the gas yielding, when concentrated in a tube, a light and beautiful flame ; in winter the water loses its burning properties. At the head of Lake Ontario there are several fountains, strongly impregnated with sulphur ; the latter found in substance collected into solid lumps of brimstone. The Indians speak of volcanoes in several parts of the province, particularly towards the Chippewa hunting-grounds. So far as we hear, however, they would appear to be in an incipient state ; indeed the physical configuration and geology of Upper Canada lead to the belief that it is but of recent formation, or rather emersion from the ocean, and that at no very distant period of time, instead of a continent, there was only a succession of islands and rocks. Whether the water in the lowest depths of Lakes Superior and Ontario be salt or fresh, we cannot ascertain ; for the greatest density of the former may keep it always below, or there may be a communication with the fathomless abysses of the ocean.

Salt "*licks*" (springs) are numerous ; one at Salt Fleet yielded a barrel of salt a day. Near the Mora-

vian villages, on the River Thames, there are springs of petroleum, and a bituminous substance appears on several of the waters in the north-west country : on the above-named river there is a quarry of soft free-stone, of a dark colour, which the Indians hew out with their axes : it will not endure the heat of fire, but is useful for building. Near the Gannanoqui Lake is found a soft-soap stone, with a smooth oily surface. Gypsum is obtained in large quantities and of excellent quality on the Grand, or Ouse River. Potter's and pipe-clay are frequent, and yellow ochre is occasionally met with.

CLIMATE OF THE CANADAS.—The temperature of this extensive country varies of course with the distance from the equator,—the contiguity to ranges of uncultivated mountains, &c. ; but as a whole, the clear blue sky, the absence of fogs, and the consequent peculiar elasticity of animal fibre, indicate the salubriousness of British North America. In the Eastern provinces of Lower Canada, the greater severity of the winter is owing partly to its N.E. position, and partly to the N.E. range of lofty mountains. In the more N. part of the province, the snow commences in November, but seldom continues many days on the ground before December, when the whole country is covered for several feet deep, and it does not entirely disappear before the beginning of May. The frost during this period is generally intense, with N.W. winds and clear atmosphere, during the greater part of the winter ; but on a change of wind to the southward and eastward, the weather is overcast, the atmosphere becomes damp, some-

times accompanied with thick fog and snow falls, with a considerable rise in the thermometer,—which usually ranges, during the months of December, January, February, and March, from 32° to 25° *below* zero—Fahrenheit. In 1790, Mercury froze at Quebec. It is often 60° Fahrenheit below the freezing point— 20° is the average. As an experiment, bomb-shells were nearly filled with water of the temperature of 51° below the freezing point; an iron plug was then driven into the fuse-hole by a sledge-hammer; when the water froze, the plug was forced out with a loud report, and with great velocity, to a considerable extent; a plug $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. weight was thrown 415 yards, the elevation of the fuse axis being at 45. When a plug with notched springs, permitting its expansion within the shell, was used, the shell always burst. Rocks, particularly those of the calcareous, schistous, and sand-stone order, are often rent as if with gun-powder, by the expansive force of intense frost. During the cold frosty nights, the woods creak, as if 10,000 *bucherons* were at them with their hatchets.

As the winter comes on, one snow storm succeeds another till the face of the whole country is changed,—every particle of ground is covered, the trees alone remaining visible,—and even the mighty river St. Lawrence is arrested in its course; everywhere, in fact, the chilling influence of winter is felt, and every precaution is taken by man, to resist its benumbing effects. All the feathered tribes take the alarm—even the hardy crow retreats—and few quadrupeds are to be seen: some, like the bear, remaining in a torpid state; and others, like the hare, changing

their colour to pure white, and thus with difficulty to be discerned amid the snow.

From Quebec to Montreal, the St. Lawrence ceases to be navigable, and serves as a road for the sleighs and carriages. The carriage varies in shape according to the fancy of the owner; sometimes like that of a phaeton, or gig, or a chariot, or family coach: the body is placed on what are called *runners*, which resemble in form the irons of a pair of skates, rising up in front in the same manner and for the same purposes. The *high runners* are about eighteen inches; but generally the carriage is about twelve inches above the snow, over which it glides with great ease, on a level surface, without sinking deep: but when *cahots* (from *cahoter*, to *jolt*), a word which denotes narrow ridges with deep furrows, are formed in the snow, the motion is like rowing in a boat against a head sea, producing a sensation, until one is accustomed to it, somewhat like sea-sickness. The carriage is often mounted with silver, and ornamented with expensive furs. The *traineaux*, *burline*, *cutter* and *sleigh* are all varieties of the *carriage*. Instead of the variety which a Canadian summer presents, by enabling the traveller to trace the course of noble rivers—to contemplate the fall of mighty cataracts—the gaiety and liveliness of the busy hum of commerce in the passing vessels on the moving waters—the fine tints of the forests, and the auburn tinge of the ripening corn—the whistle of the plough-boy, and the lowing of the tended kine—nothing is now to be seen but one continued solid plain; no rivers, no ships, no animals—all one uniform, un-

broken plain of snow, the average depth of which, unless where accumulated by snow-storms or drifts, is about 30 inches.

The dress of the Canadian now undergoes a complete change; the hat and *bonnet rouge* are thrown aside, and fur caps, fur cloaks, fur gloves, are put in requisition, with worsted hose over as well as under his boots: those who take exercise on foot use snow shoes, or *mocassins*, which are made of a kind of network, fixed on a frame, and shaped like a boy's paper kite, about two feet long, and 18 inches broad; these cover so much of the surface of the snow that the wearer sinks but a very few inches, even when the snow is softest.

While the severity of the season is thus guarded against by the Canadians when out of doors, their habitations are also secured against the destructive power of intense cold. The walls of the houses are usually plastered¹ on the outside, to preserve the stones from moisture, which, if acted on by the frost, is liable to split them; and the apartments are heated with stoves, which keep the temperature at a higher and more uniform rate than our English fire-places do.

And here it may be observed, that the result of intense cold (such as is felt in Canada) is, if not guarded against, similar to that of intense heat; with this difference, that it is easier to guard against

¹ It has been found difficult to get plaster to adhere, particularly if exposed to the easterly wind; but by mixing a couple of pounds of Muscovado sugar with a bushel of lime, a hard and durable *rough casting* is produced.

the effects of the one in N. America than of the other in India. A *cold* iron during a Canadian winter, when tightly grasped, blisters and *burns* with nearly equal facility as a *hot iron*. The principle, in both instances, is alike—in the former, the *caloric* or vital heat of the body passes so rapidly *from the hand* into the cold iron, as to destroy the continuous and organic structure of the part; in the latter, the caloric passes so rapidly from the hot *iron* into the hand, as to produce the same effect: heat, in both cases, being the cause; its passing *into* the body *from* the iron, or *into* the iron *from* the body, being equally injurious to vitality. From a similar cause the incautious traveller, in Canada, is *burnt* in the face by a very *cold* wind, with the same sensations as when he is exposed to the blast of an eastern sirocco. Milton thus alludes to the effects of cold in his description of the abode of Satan and his compeers: after advertising to Styx, he says—

“ Beyond this flood, a frozen continent
Lies, dark and wild, beat with perpetual storms
Of whirlwind and dire hail, which, on firm land
Thaws not, but gathers heap, and ruin seems
Of ancient pile: all else deep snow and ice;
A gulf profound as that Serbonian bog
Betwixt Damietta and Mount Casius old,
Where armies whole have sunk: *the parching air*
Burns froze (frozen), and cold performs the effect of fire¹.”

PARADISE LOST, Book ii.

We also find in Virgil, Georg. I. 93—

———Boreæ penetrabile frigus adurat.

¹ Dogs become mad at Quebec in December and January,

The term *frost-bitten* denotes the effect produced by extreme cold, accompanied by a sharp biting wind. In such weather, persons are liable to have the nose, toes, fingers, ears; or those parts where the circulation of the blood is scanty and slow, *frost-bitten*, without being made aware of the change by their own sensations; and it not unfrequently happens that they are first informed of their misfortune by a passing stranger, who observes the nose, for instance, becoming quite *white*, while the rest of the face is very red. In such a predicament, it is at first startling to see an utter stranger running up to you with a handful of snow, calling out "*your nose, sir! your nose is frost-bitten;*" and, without further ceremony, rubs without mercy at your proboscis—it being the first time, perhaps, that any one has ever dared to tweak and twinge that exquisitely sensitive organ—which some have considered the seat of honour. If *snow* be well *rubbed in* in due time, there is a chance of saving the most prominent feature of the face; if not, or if *heat* be applied, not only is the skin destroyed, but the nose, and a great part of the adjacent surface, are irrecoverably lost.

The result of the long-continued action of snow or cold on the animal frame is inevitable death, and that of the most pleasing kind;—at first a degree of languor is felt,—to this succeeds an oppressive drowsiness, which, if indulged in, is surely fatal—the sufferer passing, without motion or pain, from

when the cold is greatest; extreme cold and extreme heat being equally favourable to the propagation of hydrophobia.

the slumber of life into the cold sleep of death, leaving the countenance as calm and placid as if the pulse of existence still vibrated through the frame, while voluntary muscular power was suspended, under the delightful enjoyment of sound repose. Those who feel the pleasurable moments which intervene between the states of consciousness and unconsciousness on approaching sleep,—when indistinct visions and indescribable emotions are experienced by the guileless, may readily conceive the exquisite mode in which the soporific influence of frost softens the iron grasp of the grim tyrant. It is probable that the death from inhaling the vapour of burning charcoal, is somewhat similar to this. It must not, however, be supposed that the severity of the winter is any obstacle to out-door amusements, though it stops the navigation of the rivers and the cultivation of the soil; on the contrary, winter in Canada is the season of joy and pleasure: the cares of business are laid aside, and all classes and ranks indulge in a general carnival, as some amends for the toil undergone during the summer months. The sleigh or carriage of the humble *habitant*, or proud *seigneur*, is got ready all over the country—riding abroad on business or pleasure commences—visiting is in active play between friends, neighbours, and relatives—*regular* city and town balls, and *irregular* pic-nic country parties, where each guest brings his dish, are quite the rage; and, after dining, dancing, and supping, and dancing again, the wintry morning dawn is ushered in, while the festive glee is yet at its height, and a violent snow-storm often blockades

the *picnickers*, until broad daylight enables them to carriole towards home—over the ice-bound rivers and waves of snow, in all the enjoyments of which the lightest hearted beings can be susceptible, considering the hardships and inconveniences of the moment, as a zest to the more staid and fashionable *routes* of Quebec or Montreal.

Travelling over frozen rivers or lakes is, however, not unattended with real danger; the sleigh, its horses and passengers, being not unfrequently instantly engulfed, and sucked beneath the ice; there being no warning of the danger until the horses sink, dragging the carriole and its inmates after them. Fortunately, the weak or thin places are in general of no great extent; and when the horses are found to be sinking, the passengers instantly leap out on the strong ice, seize the ropes, which, with a running noose, are placed ready for such an emergency on every sleigh horse's neck, and, by sheer pulling, the animal is strangled in order to save his life! This is absolutely a fact. If the horse be allowed to kick and struggle, it only serves to injure and sink him: as soon, however, as the noose is drawn tight, his breathing is momentarily checked, strangulation takes place, the animal becomes motionless, rises to the surface, floats on one side, and is then drawn out on the strong ice, when the noose being loosened, respiration re-commences, and the horse is on his feet carrioling away again in a few minutes as briskly as ever. This singular and almost incredible operation has been known to be performed two or three times a day on the same

horse; and the Americans say, that like Irishmen, the animals are *so used to being hanged that they think nothing of it*. Often, however, horses, sleigh or car-riole, and passengers, are in a moment sunk, and swept beneath the ice. The traveller on the frozen rivers, but more especially on the frozen lakes, incurs also great danger from the large rifts or openings which run from one side of the lake to the other, from one to six feet broad, causing, at some distance from the crack, a shelving up of the ice to the height of several feet, in proportion to the breadth of the fissure. The sleigh drivers, when they see no other mode of passing, or of escape, make the horses endeavour to leap the chink at full gallop, with the sleigh behind them, at the imminent risk of being engulfed in the lake.

A snow-storm is another source of danger to the American traveller; and there is, indeed, something truly awful and terrific in a snow-storm on land, as well as in a hurricane at sea, with this disadvantage attending the traveller on *terra firma*, that he has no land-marks, supplying the place of the mariner's compass, to guide him in his trackless path, while the intellects become rapidly bewildered, memory fails, and a road often travelled, and formerly well known, is utterly lost in the remembrance of the unfortunate traveller. While the heavy fall of snow is taking place, it is accompanied by a violent gale of wind, which drifts the light snow along with great velocity, forming in its progress innumerable eddies and turnings according to the inequalities of the surface, and raising as were light clouds from the earth,

which obscure and confuse every thing. This drift, which the Canadians call *La Poudre*, consists of minute but intensely frozen particles of snow, which, whirled by the impetuosity of the hurricane, force their way through the smallest window or door chink, leaving large heaps of snow on the floor in a few hours, as we sometimes experience on a small scale in England. I cannot here forbear giving the following picturesque Canadian song, by Mrs. Moodie, which, while it depicts the danger of the traveller over the snow, cheers us with the feelings which welcome the parent and the husband at the cottage door, when the perils of the ice-bound flood are past :—

'Tis merry to hear at evening time,
By the blazing hearth, the sleigh-bell's chime¹ ;
And to know each bound of the steed brings nigher
The friend for whom we have heaped the fire.
Light leap our hearts, while the listening hound
Springs forth to hail him with bark and bound.

'Tis he ! and blithely the gay bells sound,
As his sleigh glides over the frozen ground ;
Hark ! he has passed the dark pine-wood,
And skims like a bird o'er the ice-bound flood ;
Now he catches the gleam from the cabin door,
Which tells that his toilsome journey's o'er.

Our cabin is small, and coarse our cheer,
But love has spread the banquet here ;

¹ The horses in the sleighs or carriages have small bells hung on the harness, the sound of which is cheering to the animal as well as to his master : in a frosty night, sound is rapidly and extensively conveyed to an anxious and listening ear, and the tinkle of the distant sleigh bell may well be thought musical.

And childhood springs to be caress'd
By our well-beloved and welcome guest ;
With a smiling brow his tale he tells,
While the urchins ring the merry sleigh-bells.

From the cedar-swamp the gaunt wolves howl,
From the hollow oak loud whoops the owl,
Scared by the crash of the falling tree :
But these sounds bring terror no more to me ;
No longer I listen with boding fear,
The sleigh-bell's distant chime to hear.

Below Quebec the St. Lawrence is not frozen over, but the navigation is impeded by the large masses of ice which are floated down the river from the upper districts, and kept in motion by the combined action of the current at the narrows opposite Quebec, and the diurnal influence of the ocean tides.

To cross the river at these times, though a dangerous enterprise, is one that is constantly performed. The period chosen is high water, when the large masses of ice are almost stationary ; the canoe is then launched, the people being provided with ropes, boat-hooks and paddles ; when a sheet of ice is reached the passengers jump out on it, drawing the canoe after them, until they come to another opening, when they again launch their fragile conveyance, which is pushed towards another sheet of ice, and so on, the greatest dexterity being necessary to avoid being crushed to pieces, canoe and all, between two of the huge masses of ice when coming together with a violent crash.

At distant intervals, about once in ten years, the St. Lawrence is frozen across completely at Quebec,

when a grand rejoicing takes place, a kind of jubilee in fact; booths are erected on the ice, sleigh races are enacted, skating, driving, &c. occur on a smooth sheet of ice, which for eight miles appears like a mirror, and the *pont* (as it is termed) enables the country people on the opposite side from Quebec to bring their frozen provisions, &c. to market in their carriages, without the difficulty and danger of crossing the half-frozen river in their slight canoes.

As soon as the winter sets in, the farmer is obliged to house all his cattle, sheep, and poultry, when those destined for winter use are killed before they lose any of the fat acquired during the summer and autumn. No salt is necessary to preserve them—they are exposed to the frost for a short time, when they become as hard as ice, and in this state, after being packed in casks or boxes with snow, are preserved from the external air. At the end of four or five months they are still perfectly good, and thawed for use with *cold* water—warm fluid would render the provisions quite useless. Fish is also preserved in a similar manner, and it is stated may be restored to life four or five days after being immediately frozen when taken out of water. From these circumstances, housekeeping is less expensive in winter than in summer.

During the month of April, the influence of the sun on the ice and snow begins to be felt, and about the first week in May, the snow has all disappeared in the neighbourhood of Quebec¹; and the ice which had been accumulating in the great lakes and rivers

¹ The spring is three weeks earlier at Montreal, distant on the St. Lawrence about 180 miles.

that pay tribute to the St. Lawrence, rushes down in vast masses and almost incredible quantities towards the ocean, which again dashes it inland with the impetuosity of the gulf tides, presenting an extraordinary and almost terrific scene : sometimes the St. Lawrence is choked up from bank to bank with masses of ice from 400 to 500 yards in diameter,—the sea-tide and land current force these on one another, and break them into small pieces, forming fantastic groups of figures, high above the surface of the river ; the effect of the wind and water on these masses may easily be imagined. The navigation of the river is not said to be completely open until they have all disappeared, which is about the second week in May ; vessels attempting to get out of, or to enter the St. Lawrence while the ice is forming or disappearing, are frequently lost, by being embayed, and crushed to pieces during a severe storm, when the running rigging, and even the rudder become immoveable. It is worthy of notice, that so large a river as the *St. Lawrence*, in lat. 47, should be shut up with ice as early, and remain as long closed (five months) as the comparatively small river *Neva*, in lat. 60.

A singular meteorological phenomenon occurs in the midst of a Canadian winter, when the mercury F. is 60° below the freezing point ; suddenly, in the course of a day (in January generally) it ascends 2° or 3° above the point of congelation, the weather instantly changing from the greatest degree of cold to a complete thaw. The streets are inundated with the melted snow, the roads become soft, and carrioling

on the river dangerous; the thaw sometimes lasts for ten days, when intense frost again commences, producing a beautiful effect on the trees, namely, an incrustation of ice, from the smallest branch to the trunk, and which, if the sun shines upon them, produces the appearance of fairy work or enchantment.

The severest winters are generally accompanied by N.E. winds, which convey from Labrador and by the icy Pole new supplies of snow and frost; but the prevailing winds throughout the year are westerly; in the winter, cold sharp and dry airs blow from the N. and N.W., and in the summer genial breezes come from the W. and S.W. The E. wind blows for a few days in each month, and in the spring, during April and May, for a longer period. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, are extremely brilliant, and assume various forms—at one time, like gorgeous floating standards—at another as a vast crescent, changing into magnificent columns or pillars of resplendent light, which move in majestic grandeur from the horizon towards the zenith, until the whole firmament becomes splendidly irradiated—suddenly vanishing, and as suddenly reappearing under new forms and colours, and with varied brilliancy, until they entirely disappear. It is said by some, that a rustling like that of silk is heard during a fine Aurora. Mr. McGregor never heard it in Labrador.

But it is time to leave the consideration of hoary winter, and hasten, with the husbandman and lover of nature, to experience the delight of again beholding green sods, verdant groves, and flowing rivers.

The summer commences about the middle of May, and is usually ushered in by moderate rains, and a rapid rise in the meridian heat, though the nights are still cool; but in June, July and August the heat becomes great, and for a few days oppressive, the thermometer ranging from 80° to 95° in the shade; but the average heat during the summer seldom exceeds 75° .

A good idea of the spring of the year may be formed from the following Agricultural Report for April and May, 1834—the intending emigrant will doubtless be gratified with the perusal :—

LOWER CANADA AGRICULTURAL REPORT, FOR APRIL AND MAY, 1834.

Early in April well prepared soils were in good order to receive the seed, and about the 10th or 12th wheat sowing was very generally commenced. The weather continuing fine to the 21st, afforded opportunity to those farmers who had done their ploughing last fall, to get in their seed in good season. From the 21st, the month of April was distinguished, as it often is, by the rapidity of its changes, from heat to cold, wet, and severe night frost. The change was so great as to stop vegetation almost entirely. Cold changeable weather continued to the middle of May—on the night of the 14th ice was formed, and on the 15th there was a considerable fall of snow. From the 16th to the end of the month, the weather was exceedingly favourable, and vegetation has got on with great vigour.

Farmers have not met with much interruption this spring from wet days, and consequently should now have their work in a state of great forwardness; sowing and planting ought to be completed by the 10th of June, and thus give a month's interval to haying time, to prepare summer fallow on lands that require it, and always in preference to sowing oats, after the 1st of June.

The pastures should now be good, and will soon improve the

condition of the cattle. Dairy produce appears to be abundant in the market, and the prices moderate.

Notwithstanding the shortness of the seasons that farmers have here to work in the fields, Canada is by no means unfavourable for farming, and in ordinary seasons, with the seed got in early, on soils well prepared, a good crop of all kinds of grain, wheat particularly, may generally be obtained. With command of labour, which continued emigration will give, the farmer has only to employ double the number of hands for the working season, while the days are long and fine, that he would have required in England for the whole year, and he may get all his work done, perhaps at not a greater expense, and the labourer will have his summer's earnings to take to the woods (if he has a family), to commence farming on his own account, which should be the ultimate aim of all the labouring class of emigrants, if they expect to secure future independence for themselves and their families.

At this moment the country is charming; after a long and gloomy winter, the earth is again renovated—new life restored to plants—the trees dressed in leaves and blossoms—the fields in beautiful green, and all nature appears to rejoice. Though every field may not be equally luxuriant, the general appearance of the country is delightful, and ought to be perfectly satisfactory to all those engaged in agriculture, more particularly those who have performed their part *well*.

Côte St. Paul, May 31, 1834.

WM. EVANS.

That the climate of Canada has undergone a change is shown by the mean height of the thermometer at 8 A.M., for the *month of July* in the following years:—1799, 66.87; 1802, 68.35; 1806, 65.96; 1809, 60.60; 1812, 62.16; 1814, 60.45; 1816, 58.65; 1818, 64.00. Since 1818 the change has been considerable, partly owing to the *motion of the Magnetic Poles*¹, and the clearing consequent on

¹ It is supposed that the poles of the globe and the isothermal poles (which appear to approximate very near to the magnetic

the cultivation of the country, the effect of which is mainly observable in the lengthened duration of summer, and consequent shortening of winter.

During the summer months there is a great deal (poles of the earth) are by no means coincident—but that on the contrary, there exist two different points within a few degrees of the poles, where the cold is greatest in both hemispheres; this connection led Dr. Brewster to suppose that if the centres of greatest cold be also precisely the centres of magnetic attraction, and if from some unknown but necessary connection they are always coincident, then we derive from the known *motion of the magnetic poles*, an explanation of the most remarkable revolutions that have taken place on the surface of the earth. This theory of Dr. Brewster's appears to me to be borne out by facts—by the singular change which the climates of all countries have at various times undergone, and by the great breaking up of the icy regions of the south pole which is now taking place. Dr. Brewster thinks that the cold points are at present situate about the 80th parallel of latitude, and in the meridians of 95° East and 100° West longitude. The meridians of these isothermal lines he considers as lying nearly at right angles to the parallels of what may be termed the parallels of the Meteorological latitudes, which Dr. B. supposes to have an obliquity of direction as regards the equator, after the manner of the zodiac—*ergo*, the cold circle of latitude which passes through Siberia would be the same that traverses the coldest part of Canada. It is a fact, that a wide discrepancy marks the temperature of corresponding latitudes in Europe and America; the inhabited parts of the two Canadas lie between 42 and 48 of N. latitude, and should therefore enjoy the temperature of central and southern Europe, if influenced merely by their distance from the Equator and Pole, but the tables given in various parts of this volume show that it is far otherwise; yet when we remember that the Tiber was formerly frozen annually—that snow was usual at Rome—that the Euxine sea, the Rhone and Rhine were almost every year covered with a strong sheet of ice, we may look forward to yet greater modifications of the climate of Canada.

of electric fluid in the atmosphere, and the vividness of the lightning and loudness of the thunder are sometimes appalling in the extreme. As a general rule, it may be observed that the prevailing winds (viz. N.E., N.W. and S.W.) have considerable influence on the temperature of the atmosphere and state of the weather. The S.W. (the most prevalent) is generally moderate, and accompanied by clear skies; the N.E. and E. bring continued rain in summer, and snow in winter; the N.W. is dry, cold and elastic, owing to the ice-bound region from which it springs. Winds from due N., S. or W. are not frequent, and the direction of the tide, which is felt for nearly 60 miles above Quebec, often causes a change in the atmospheric current.

Among the meteoric phenomena observed in Canada, I may here record that singular one, termed the '*dark days*,' which occurred in October, 1785, and in July, 1814. These appearances (as described in the transactions of the Quebec Literary and Horticultural Society) consisted of a dismal pitchy darkness at *noon-day*, continuing about ten minutes at a time, and frequently repeated at twelve, two, three, and four o'clock, the intervals being partially relieved by vast masses of clouds streaked with yellow, driving athwart the darkened sky, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind with much thunder, lightning, and rain, the latter extremely black, and in 1814, mixed with ashes and black powder. In the latter instance, when the sun could be seen, it appeared of a bright red colour. The Indians account for this phenomenon by ascribing it to a volcano, in Labrador;

and Mr. Gagnon has placed on record that he witnessed at St. Paul's Bay, in the Saguenay country, in 1791, the flames of a vast volcano, during the month of December, accompanied by violent shocks : flames mixed with dark smoke were thrown to a great height, causing the whole atmosphere to appear one mass of fire,—which was in strange contrast with the surrounding snow. As Canada becomes cleared, and its swamps drained, the health of its inhabitants is materially benefitted, and they may be said in general to enjoy as salubrious an atmosphere as we do in England, while the heat of summer is less relaxing, and the cold of winter more bracing than at New York, or indeed any part of the United States. As regards agriculture, the lengthened winter of Lower Canada is certainly not on the whole unfavourable to the tiller of the soil. The effect of snow on the earth for a long period is well known to be favourable ; and the fall of deep snow in a country where frost prevails from five to six months, is one instance among many, of the beautiful arrangements of Providence ; had it not been so, the continued action of cold on the earth would have so robbed it of its natural caloric, that the heat of several hot summers would have been required to restore the warmth necessary to the germination of plants, and the ascension of the sap in vegetables. The natural heat of the earth is about 42° Fahrenheit ; but it has been ordained by the Being who has so wonderfully adapted means to an end in every instance, that water when cooled down to 32° Fahrenheit should be converted into snow and ice ; by this means, the rivers and the

land, with their myriads of fish and insects, are protected by a dense crust of ice, which is a *non-conductor* of heat, from the pernicious influence of that immense volume of cold atmosphere, which is continually pressing from the polar regions towards the equator. Thus, that very coating of snow, which seems so rigorous in itself, is in fact a warm garment for the earth; and as soon as the returning sun has driven back the north winds to their icy region, the latent caloric of the earth begins to be developed, the snow melts, and percolates with rapidity the stiffest soils, rendering them peculiarly friable, and adapted to the immediate labours of the husbandman; while it is a singular fact, that for a month or six weeks before the visible termination of the Canadian winter, vegetation is in active process even on the surface of the earth, beneath a covering of snow several feet thick.

Montreal being a central point of Lower Canada, it will be preferable to give an idea of its climate in regard to the thermometer, barometer, winds, and rain. I therefore subjoin the following extracts from Meteorological Tables for the year 1831, kept at Montreal by Dr. W. Robertson¹:—

¹ From observations made on Cape Diamond, Quebec, 350 feet above the sea, for eight years, ending in 1836, the following averages have been formed: *Barometer*—highest, 30.59; lowest, 8.11; mean, 29.543. *Thermometer*—highest, 90°; lowest, 28° below zero; mean, 37°. The thermometer months were generally January and July; the barometer, March and December.

JULY.

Date.	Thermometer.		Barometer.	Inches of Rain.		Wind at Noon.
	7 A.M.	3 P.M.		7 A.M.	3 P.M.	
1	30	24	29.50	29.15	3 P.M.	WSW
2	18	18	30.5	30.5	83	SW
3	15	21	30.35	30.35	72	NE
4	26	33	30.7	29.90	72	N
5	36	33	29.90	29.92	74	SW
6	2	34	30.15	30.17	75	SW
7	25	24	30.12	30.18	71	W
8	12	18	30.37	30.38	87	SW
9	8	13	30.32	30.27	88	N
10	-2	13	30.17	30.7	92	SE
11	14	19	29.97	29.87	29.96	WNW
12	8	8	30.8	30.20	29.75	WNW
13	-6	6	30.45	30.42	30.3	SW
14	6	16	30.38	30.35	30.27	SW
15	3	11	30.15	30.4	30.25	SSW
16	17	22	30.0	29.98	30.7	SSE
17	3	13	30.0	29.90	29.92	NE
18	13	30	29.68	29.63	29.87	WSW
19	12	16	29.47	29.46	29.86	WSW
20	-8	6	29.79	29.90	29.90	SSE
21	-15	3	30.5	30.0	29.85	SW
22	-3	8	29.55	29.45	29.70	WSW
23	-5	1	29.60	29.70	29.73	W
24	-10	0	29.75	29.68	29.75	SE
25	-4	9	29.58	29.50	29.78	SSW
26	10	22	29.50	29.48	29.72	W
27	12	22	29.60	29.65	29.75	W
28	13	20	29.97	30.0	29.80	SSE
29	5	20	29.99	29.95	29.92	SW
30	6	23	29.95	29.95	29.95	S
31	21	32	29.95	29.93	29.85	N

JANUARY.

Upper Canada.—Of course, in an extent of country, lying between 42 and 50 of north latitude, the climate is various; in the settled townships it is generally delightful, neither so cold in winter as Lower Canada, nor so hot in summer as New York; in the Newcastle district, between 44 and 45, a man may work in the woods the whole winter with his coat off, as in England; and the summer heat is tempered by a cool breeze, which sets in from the S.W. about 10 a. m., and lasts generally to 3 or 4 p. m. In summer, the wind blows two-thirds of the season from the S. W., *i. e.* along the great lakes.

In spring and autumn, this wind brings a good deal of moisture with it. The N.W., which is the most frequent in winter, is dry, cold, and elastic; the S.E. soft, thawy, and rainy: the wind seldom blows from west or south, more rarely still from the north. Of course, changes of wind are accompanied by corresponding alternations of weather; the most sudden are to the N.W., followed by weather clear and cold for the season—almost every thunder shower clears up with this wind: the longest storms of rain, and the deepest falls of snow, are usually accompanied by easterly winds. It may be generally remarked, that the human frame, in all climates, is more sensibly affected by the quarter whence the wind blows, than by the mere height of the thermometer,—humidity with cold or heat rendering the extremes of each less endurable. The table which will be found on the following page, affords a comparative view of the climate of Upper and Lower Canada throughout the year, as regards the highest, lowest, and mean tem-

perature, for each month, in Upper and Lower Canada,—latitude 42. north in Upper Canada,—latitude 45. in Lower Canada.

Comparative View of the Climates of Upper and Lower Canada.

THERMOMETER—FAHRENHEIT.							WEATHER.					
UPPER CANADA.				LOWER CANADA.			UPPER CANADA.				LOWER CANADA.	
Max.	Min	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.		Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.
January	-20	18-17	33	-23	11-14		days. 13	days. 8	days. 9	days. 23	days. 4	days. 4
February	8	23-87	40	-29	10-69		11	10	7	21	3	5
March.....	0	26-94	47	-26	12-13		21	8	2	25	3	3
April	40	59-70	81	9	48-91		23	3	4	25	3	3
May	40	67-32	92	30	67-84		22	5	4	23	4	4
June	57	77-51	95	55	76-34		22	8	3	26	2	2
July	60	81-37	103	62	82-23		25	3	3	26	3	2
August	55	73-24	100	58	74-7		21	5	5	16	12	2
September.....	33	64-45	90	30	59-16		21	5	4	18	8	5
October	28	48-	55	9	32-24		13	8	9	16	5	8
November	10	34-53	40	-13	17-44		11	14	7	14	7	10
December	-2	25-43	43	-21	11-94		11	12	8	23	2	5
For the year	73-8	25-72	48-37	68-25	11-75	42-1	214	89	62	256	56	53
For the months June, July, & August	96-66	57-33	77-37	99-33	58-33	77-54		34 snow. 55			21 snow. 35	
Winter months...	46-33	-4-67	22-49	38-66	-24-33	11-25		rain.			rain.	

The *winter* of Upper Canada, although even not at present severe, is becoming milder every year, as cultivation extends. It is a great error to suppose that the great Lakes, Ontario, &c. are frozen over at any time: they are always open in the centre, frequently exhibiting a beautiful and striking phenomenon, during the inclement season. By reason of the water being warmer than the circumambient atmosphere, an evaporation resembling steam may be observed ascending in every variety of shape, in clouds, columns, and pyramids, with uncommon grandeur and magnificence, from the vast surfaces of Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, as if from so many boiling cauldrons.

The chain of shallow lakes which run in an east and south-easterly direction from Lake Simcoe towards the midland district, are seldom frozen more than an inch thick until about Christmas, and they are again open before April.

The earth in Upper Canada is not generally frozen at a greater depth than from 12 to 18 inches, and the snow rarely lies at a greater depth than from 18 inches to two feet, unless when drifted. It is very seldom that the roads are permanently fit for the use of the *sleigh* or *carriole*, before the second week in January, and they are again broken up by the end of March: this shows the duration of sharp frosts and snow: in fact a labouring man may, if he chooses, work at all times out of doors: whereas in Lower Canada, at the more northerly stations, it would be impossible so to do.

There are several remarkable phenomena in the

climate of Upper Canada, hitherto unaccounted for—one of these is termed—

The *Indian Summer*, which almost uniformly commences and terminates in the month of November, when the weather is delightfully mild and serene with a misty hazy atmosphere, though the haze is dry and soft, appearing to rest chiefly on the horizon. In the evenings of the *Indian Summer*, the sun generally goes down with a crimson flush on the western heavens; the temperature is exceedingly grateful; and the feathered tribes, who instinctively seek a southern region on the approach of the rigorous winter of the north, avail themselves of this delightful season to prosecute their journey. Accordingly at this time, the rivers and lakes of Upper Canada may be seen covered with innumerable flocks of wild fowl.

Another very extraordinary meteorological phenomenon is that which may be denominated the *tertian intervals*. The greatest intensity of frost is always *remittent* at the end of the *third day*, when several days of mild weather succeed; thus the extreme severity of the winter is never felt more than two or three days at a time.

Owing perhaps to the distance from the sea, and the absence of saline particles in the atmosphere, the climate is so dry, that metals rust but slightly by exposure, even on board vessels navigating lakes. Hence iron bolts are used in ship building, instead of copper.

As the country becomes more settled and cleared, the winters are less rigorous and snowy, and agues and March fevers disappear. The people think, and

observation justifies the popular opinion, that when the water rises to a great height, the season is unhealthy. In 1815, the waters of Lake Ontario, which had been annually rising, rose higher than they had done for thirty years, and the season was unhealthy. In several districts, particularly in Niagara, peaches and other fruits of a warm climate arrive at great perfection. The healthiness of the climate is indicated by the roses on the cheeks of the children of the peasantry; and the general appearance of the people is very different from the sallow leaden hue of the inhabitants of the United States, or indeed of the Lower Districts of Quebec.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION OF THE CANADAS FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD,
AND CLASSIFICATION OF IT BY DISTRICTS AND COUNTIES,
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST CENSUS.

CANADA, as well as the other portions of the American continent, was comparatively densely peopled by a dark race, termed Indians, when first discovered by Europeans; and as colonization extended, the coloured population was destroyed by the whites; somewhat, I regret to say, after the manner that the Norway rat annihilated his less formidable compeer. It does not, however, fall within the scope of this work to enter into abstract disquisitions, or to offer speculative opinions as to the origin of the Aborigines of the North American continent¹; suffice it here to observe, that the wars between the French and English in Canada, and the United States, hastened the destruction of the Aborigines; a very few of whom still exist in the Lower Province, while their numbers are decreasing so fast that, in a comparatively brief period, the far-famed Indian race will probably be extinct.

¹ From a coincidence between the usages of the N. A. Indians and Asiatic tribes, particularly the Tartars, it has been supposed that America was peopled from Asia; but the affinity in language, religion, architecture, customs, &c. between the Mexicans and Polynesian nations, is really very remarkable.



Area in Water & Land 230,000 Sq. Miles.

40
Knollen Mispel

The earliest European census of Lower Canada took place in 1622, when Quebec, then a small village, did not contain more than 50 persons. A general capitation took place in 1676, at which time there were 8415 inhabitants. The rapid increase of late years, is chiefly owing to emigration from Europe¹.

Several interesting particulars are given in the census of Lower Canada for 1831; the following brief abstract is given from my large work:—

Rate of Increase in the General Population of Lower Canada, from 1760 to 1836 inclusive.

	Increase.
In 1760, the population of the undivided province was	65,000
1784, ditto	113,000 48,000
1825, the population of Lower Canada, by a corrected census, say . .	450,000 337,000
1831, the population of Lower Canada, by census of this year, was . . .	511,917 61,917
1836, the population of Lower Canada, supposed to be	600,000 89,581
Increase in 6 years, from 1825 to 1831, of Lower Canada	13 per cent.
Ditto in 5 years, 1831 to 1836, of Lower Canada	17 2-5ths.
General rate, from 1825 to 1836, of Lower Canada, 11 years	33 $\frac{1}{4}$
Average increase from 1760 to 1784, of Lower Canada, per annum . .	2,000
Ditto increase from 1784 to 1825, of Lower Canada, per annum . .	8,219
Ditto increase from 1825 to 1831, of Lower Canada, per annum . .	10,319
Ditto increase from 1831 to 1836, of Lower Canada, per annum . .	17,816

¹ In 1833—Births in Lower Canada, 95,619; Deaths, 56,301.

From 1760 to 1836 the population has doubled itself $3\frac{1}{4}$ times in Lower Canada. Taking the corrected census returns in 1825, and those of 1831, and the generally supposed population in December, 1836, the population of Lower Canada would appear to double itself in 29 years only.

Quebec District contains 13 counties, viz. Beauce, population, 11,900; area in square miles, 1007. Bellechasse, p. 13,529; sq. m. 1775. Dorchester, p. 11,946; sq. m. 348. Islet, p. 15,518; sq. m. 3044. Kamouraska, p. 14,557; sq. m. 4320. Lotbiniere, p. 9151; sq. m. 735. Magantic, p. 2283; sq. m. 1465. Montmorenci, p. 3743; sq. m. 7396. Orleans, p. 4349; sq. m. 69. Portneuf, p. 12,350; sq. m. 8640. Quebec, p. 36,173; sq. m. 14,240; Rimouski, p. 10,061; sq. m. 8840. Saguenay, p. 8385; sq. m. 75,090. Total p. 151,985; sq. m. 127,949.

Montreal District contains 19 counties, as follows:—Acadie, p. 11,419; sq. m. 250. Beauharnois, p. 16,857; sq. m. 717. Berthier, p. 20,225; sq. m. 8410. Chambly, p. 15,483; sq. m. 211. La Chenaye, p. 9461; sq. m. 299. La Prairie, p. 18,497; sq. m. 238. L'Assomption, p. 12,767; sq. m. 5008. Missisquoi, p. 8801; sq. m. 360. Montreal, p. 43,773; sq. m. 197. Ottawa, p. 4786; sq. m. 31,669. Richelieu, p. 16,149; sq. m. 373. Rouville, p. 18,115; sq. m. 429. St. Hyacinthe, p. 15,366; sq. m. 477. Shefford, p. 5687; sq. m. 749. Terrebonne, p. 16,625; sq. m. 3169. Two Mountains, p. 20,905; sq. m. 1086. Vaudreuil, p. 13,111; sq. m. 330. Vercheres, p. 12,319; sq. m. 198. Stanstead, p. 10,306; sq. m. 632. Total pop. 290,050; sq. m. 54,082.

Three Rivers District contains six counties:—Champlain, p. 6991; sq. m. 783. Drummond, p. 3566; sq. m. 1674. Nicolet, p. 12,504; sq. m. 487. St. Maurice, p. 16,909; sq. m. 9810. Sherbrooke, p. 7104; sq. m. 2786. Yamaska, p. 9496; sq. m. 283. Total pop. 56,570; sq. m. 15,823.

By the last census (1831) the population of Lower Canada is thus classified:—The number of proprietors

of real property is given at 57,891, and the extent of land occupied by them at 3,981,793 statute acres. The number of persons living in 1831, who were deaf and dumb, is stated to have been 408, the blind 334, and the insane 924. The number of inhabitants professing the Roman catholic faith, in 1831, is given (as before stated) at 403,472; the persons in connection with the Church of England were 34,620; those belonging to the Church of Scotland amounted to 15,069. There were only 107 Jews; the remainder of the population were methodists, baptists, presbyterians, not in connection with the Church of Scotland, and other sects. The number of families employed in agriculture was 50,824, employing among them as farm servants only 7,602 persons. There were in the same year (1831) 2,503 families engaged in commercial pursuits, and 1,282 persons subsisting on alms. The number of inhabited houses is stated to have been 82,437—the number being built 1,458, and the vacant 1,542; making a total of 85,437.

The total seigneurial population of the counties, according to the census of 1831, was 385,237, and the total of the township population 52,695. The seven counties from Ottawa to Megantic, inclusive, either contain a majority or consist exclusively of population resident in townships. Gaspé and Bonaventure are inhabited by a very mixed population, chiefly engaged in the fisheries. In the rest of the counties the major part of the population is seigneurial. The inhabitants of the seigneuries may, for general purposes, be reckoned

as French by origin; the inhabitants of the townships as English.

The census of 1831 estimated the whole provincial population at 511,917, and stated the number of Roman catholics to be 403,472, leaving, therefore, 108,445 to be protestants, none of whom could be of French origin.

Of the catholics, it is reasonably estimated that 50,000 are of British origin, and the statement must therefore be satisfactory that in 1831 the total number of inhabitants of British origin was 158,000, whilst that of French origin was 353,000.

Assuming, therefore, that the increase from 1831 to 1836 has raised the aggregate number to 600,000, the difference will be 89,081; but it is notorious that the fixed population of the province not only suffered great mortality from Asiatic cholera, in the years 1832 and 1834, but that during that period, and especially during the past two years, it has been much reduced by the emigration of French Canadian youth to the territories of the United States, whilst it is equally well known, from authentic sources, that, in the period of five years above mentioned, 195,000 emigrants have arrived at Quebec from the mother country, of whom it is calculated that 35,000 have settled in Lower Canada: the natural increase of the whole provincial population would thus only be 54,081, which, divided between the two races, in the proportion of 158 to 353, would augment the number of inhabitants of French origin to nearly 390,000 souls, and those of British origin to nearly

175,000; to which being added the amount of settlers by emigration, say 35,000, the total number of the latter would be 210,000, and the aggregate proportion of the two races, therefore, is as 210,000 to 390,000 in round numbers.

A cursory examination of the preceding calculation shows, that not only is the increase of the inhabitants of British origin in Lower Canada extremely rapid, but that it is in a very much greater proportion than that of the inhabitants of French origin ¹.

The character of the Canadians partakes of the source whence they spring—if of French descent, levity and servility give place to easiness, or rather mildness of manner, combined with a manly but yet respectful freedom of deportment: the descendants of the English lose the rusticity and boorishness of their ancestors; and with abundance of the necessities of life, and leisure for the improvement of their minds, the natural saturnine character of the British is relieved with a pleasing buoyancy of spirits, and enthusiasm of action ².

¹ Facts collected by the Constitutional Association of Montreal.

² The *Quebec Gazette* of December 1, 1837, during the rebellion in the Colony, contains a new version of the National Anthem, full of loyalty and feeling; the concluding verse runs thus:—

“ Far from our father land,
Nobly we'll fall or stand,
For England's Queen;
In town and forest, free
Britons, unconquered, we
Sing with true loyalty,
God save the Queen!”

The offspring of the original French inhabitants, forming a large portion of the population, deserve a few special remarks as to their habits and manners. The mass of the people are proprietors of land to a greater or less extent ; and the equal division of property, on the demise of a parent, contributes to spread a large mass of floating industry and capital over the country. Thus possessed of the means of a comfortable existence, and freed from the dread of future want, the Canadian leads a life of pleasing toil, and evinces by the lightsomeness of his heart, and the hospitality and sociability of his manners, the blessings derivable from an enjoyment, on no harsh terms, of the necessities of life.

The true Canadian, although fond of pleasure and social happiness, is rather a sedentary being, and of a staid, often sombre deportment ; peculiarly attached to the locality which gave him birth ; devoted to the religion in which he was educated, and sincere in his respect for those whom he considers his superiors. Although unlettered himself, in the European sense of the term, the Canadian is ever ready to pay his tribute of respect to those who possess mental endowments—the more so if literary attainments be accompanied by moral worth ; with a mind deeply imbued with early prejudices as to religion, country, and institutions, yet charitable to a considerable extent towards the feelings (or what he may term, the *failings*) of others ; polite, without affectation ; generous, without parade ; slow to offend ; quick to resent an insult, yet ready to forgive ; warm, nay, enthusiastic in his friendship : in short, fulfilling with

a sacred fidelity every social duty, which the obligations of society impose, the Canadian may, with all the faults and imperfections to which human nature is liable, be justly esteemed a fine specimen of our race, and as offering a demonstration how much the originally noble character of man is debased and depraved, by the poverty and starvation which crush to the earth, in misery and vice, the greater part of the European community.

I should be guilty of an unpardonable omission, were I not to refer to the delightful characteristics which distinguish the fair sex among the Canadians. It is a common remark, that a man of sombre mind enjoys most keenly the society of those who are cast in a lighter mould : accordingly nature, following out her own arrangement, suits the softer sex to the other, which has indeed the shew of ruling, but in fact often submits to a pleasing despotism, and wears its silken fetters. It is thus with the Canadian ladies, who, though in appearance, only charming toys, are capable of wielding supreme controul over their sterner lords. The beauty of a Canadian is peculiar—neither English nor French, but combining the more exquisite elements of each : she possesses more of vivid *emotions* than *ideas*, and though deficient in the nervous intellect of the Scotch, she exhibits the ardour of the Italian, and the vivacious archness of the Parisian : the quick and varied impulses of her inward soul are mirrored in the piquant glance of her dark, expressive, and passionate eye, whose lambent fire is ever kindling into flame.

Women are generally good judges of character,

and severe scrutinizers of their own sex : I may add, therefore, on the testimony of a lady, I believe (if I mistake not the style, and tone of sentiment of an anonymous correspondent), who has penetrated the mysteries of female society in Canada, that the Canadian fair sex are passionately fond of finery and society ; that their wit is sparkling, and in constant exercise, more satirical than sarcastic, delighting rather than wounding, but withal remarkable for a kind of good-natured maliciousness.

All who have visited the Canadas will agree with me in the remark, that society there is extremely agreeable,—freed from unnecessary forms, giving to life an air of delightful ease, and to private intercourse a charming tone and colouring. Those who have had the *entree* to the polished circles of France, and who have observed that talent finds a readier welcome there than titled inanity, may imagine what society is, even in the middle ranks of life, under the clear blue æther of Montreal.

As in all Roman Catholic countries (and I might add, in Hindoo and other Pagan lands) the enjoyments of the people are connected with their religious ceremonies ; the forms, and I would hope the essentials of religion are fulfilled on the Sabbath morn ; the parish, or village chapel, is thronged with both sexes, clad in their best habiliments ; but the service over, and that part of their duty to the Creator fulfilled, it is considered equally a duty to devote the remainder of the day to festivity ; the enjoyment of social happiness being considered an essential part of the weekly festival. Sunday afternoon is, in fact, a

season of gaiety ; the parish church collects together an assemblage of relatives and friends intent on rational enjoyment ; the old meet to converse on the state of the weather—the crops—the politics of the day ; the young *habitans* to meet their sweethearts—the chevalier, on his best pacer, or driving his finest carriage—the lady, adorned in the most becoming style, palpitating with the hopes and fears of an approaching bridal-day—the evening ending in cheerful feasts, to which dancing is frequently superadded. The Canadians, with all this, profess to be a pious people, and to set an extraordinary value upon the scrupulous performance of the rites of religion.

The dress of the *habitan* (French Canadian) is peculiar, as well as his manners ; it consists of a grey cloth *capot*, or large coat reaching to the knee, bound round the middle with a sash of scarlet, or exhibiting various bright colours, and close buttoned to the neck ; the head is surmounted by the *bonnet bleu*, or by a light straw hat in the heat of summer, or a fur cap in the dead of winter ; mocassins of sole leather complete the male peasant's usual dress. The female peasant's costume is similar to that worn in the south of France,—the *mantelet*, a jacket of dark, or a different coloured cloth, with a stuff petticoat, mocassins, and a head dress *à la Française* : on Sunday, of course, the habiliments are of more varied character, and where the English girl wears one colour, the Canadian will exhibit half a dozen of the brightest hues.

Of the houses it may be sufficient to observe, that there is a great similarity between those of the farmers

and peasantry in Normandy, and the people of a similar grade in Canada; the story seldom more than one; the building of wood, whitewashed, extremely clean within, and the chimney in the centre of the building; a partition between the kitchen and large apartment, where the inmates dwell; and the sleeping rooms at either end of the house, which is furnished with beds in abundance, home-made linen of excellent texture, every necessary variety of culinary utensils, and homely, strong, and often handsome furniture.

Around the house is a garden laid out, without the formal regularity of an English horticulturist, but abounding in fruit and vegetables, the rearing of which devolves on the women of the family; whose taste is often displayed in the small patches of flowers which appear to grow wild, but really are raised for the purpose of enjoying that delicious luxury, which the rudest people seem to feel in viewing and scenting 'the lilies of the field.' The farm lies around the house; and at a greater or less distance, the river or lake furnishes an ample supply of the finny tribe for a *cuisine*, always abundant, often luxurious: while the rich maple yields a large store of sugar, for the preservation of their luscious summer fruits, throughout a long and dreary winter.

In fine, the people of Lower Canada possess a bold spirit of independence, and a polite dignity, which makes the poorest peasant appear a gentleman; in their behaviour to strangers, the cut of a coat, or style of an equipage does not influence their demeanour; a species of deference is paid to a superior,

which neither debases the one, nor exalts the other ; an inferior is not treated with rudeness because he is poor, for if they cannot relieve his poverty, they do not insult him : their bravery has been evinced on various occasions, in resisting the encroachments of the Americans, and in the cause of England ; and may England never give so fine a race of people reason to repent of the confidence promptly and generously bestowed on the British nation ¹.

The Upper Canadians are a different people from the French *habitans* of the Lower Province, the former being of British (and, in a few instances, of American) birth or descent.

The earliest European settlers in Upper Canada were some French families, who settled near the banks of the Detroit and on the St. Lawrence, previous to the British acquisition of the province ; after which period, the settlements of Europeans, or of loyal inhabitants from the United States, began to be encouraged.

In 1806 the population was estimated at 70,718, in 1811 at 77,000 ; but the war with the United States tended much to check the prosperity, and with it the increase of population in the province.

According to some returns before me, the number of males and females stood in the following years thus—1821, m. 65,792, f. 56,795—total 122,587 ;

¹ I leave these remarks as they were written in 1835, because the rebellion in December, 1837, in the neighbourhood of Montreal, instigated as it has been by the treasonable language of M. Papineau and a few ambitious men, does not invalidate the truth of the general remarks contained in the text.

1828, m. 99,465, f. 89,093—t. 188,558; 1830, m. 151,081, f. 100,386—t. 251,467.

Happily, however, some more complete documents than the foregoing are in my possession, which are the only returns furnished by the Colonial Office, to the statistical department of the Board of Trade.

The Population of Upper Canada deduced from the Returns to the House of Assembly.

DISTRICTS.	1823.	1827.	1830.	1833.	Increase in 10 years.
Eastern	14879	18368	21168	22286	7407
Ottawa	2560	3133	4456	6348	3788
Johnstown.....	14741	16719	21961	27058	17317
Bathurst	10121	12207	20212	22286	12065
Midland.....	27695	30000	36322	42294	14599
Newcastle	9292	12283	16498	25560	16268
Home	16609	21295	32871	47650	38853
Gore	13157	15483	23552	31820	18677
Niagara	17552	19500	21974	24772	7220
London	17539	18912	26180	33225	21374
Western.....	6952	7956	9970	11788	4836
Total...	151097	176059	234865	296544	145447

Rate of Increase in the general Population of Upper Canada, from the Year 1824 to 1836, inclusive¹.

Date.	Popula- tion.	Increase	Date.	Popula- tion.	Increase
1824	149301		1831	234681	23314
1825	156836	7535	1832	260994	26311
1826	164703	7815	1833	296870	35878
1827	175128	10425	1834	320735	23835
1828	186345	11217	1835	346165	25430
1829	196704	10359	1836	375000	28835
1830	211569	14863			
Average Increase from 1824 to 1828 per an. 9261					
1828 to 1832 ——— 18661					
1832 to 1836 ——— 28212					
Gen. aver. increase 1824 to 1836 ——— 18712					

¹ Home District, for instance, in 1779, had 224 mouths; in 1835, 47,543.

The foregoing is exclusive of the Indian population, whose numbers, though fast diminishing, amount, according to some estimates, to 28,000. Mr. McTaggart, the engineer, collected in 1828 the following data of the Indian population throughout North America: he does not state on what authority he gives these figures, and it is difficult to place reliance on the number he mentions, namely, upwards of two millions and a half. I give his statement without further comment than the expression of a hope that it may be true, and that every effort will be made by the Europeans, to preserve from further destruction so fine a race as the North American Indians, of whom I regret my limits forbid my giving a historical account.

British Possessions.—Natives.—Lower Canada, 15,000, Upper Canada, 28,000, New Brunswick, 12,000, Nova Scotia, 5000, Cape Breton, 4000, Prince Edward's Island, 3000, Newfoundland, 4000, Anticosti, 30, Labrador, 3650, North-west Territory, 285,000, Hunting Ground of the Hudson's Bay Company, 654,000, Esquimaux Country, 84,000. Total, 1,097,680.

Possessions of the United States.—Natives.—Indiana, 124,000, Louisiana, 186,000, District of Colombia, 226,000, Michigan Territory, 23,000, Missouri Territory, 54,000, Mississippi Territory, 21,000, North-west Territory, 62,000, Illinois Territory, 5000, in the other eighteen States, 815,000.—Total, 1,516,000¹.

¹ Some of the land in Upper Canada has been purchased by the British Government from the Indians, who receive their pay-

The white, and coloured slave population of the United States has increased since 1770 as follows :—

1770	estimated	1,500,000	
1794	census	3,929,226	
1800	..	5,319,782	
1810	..	7,329,903	
1820	..	9,654,415	
1830	..	12,856,154	viz.—
Free whites	Males 5,358,759	Females 5,167,299
Slaves 1,014,345	.. 996,284
Free persons of colour	..	153,495	.. 165,972
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		6,526,529	6,339,555
			6,526,529
			<hr/>
			12,856,154

Of the age of 100 years or upwards,

among 2,330,096 blacks, 2,015

10,528,058 whites, 508

Being in the proportion of 1 in 20,720 of the whites.

_____ 1 in 1,450 of the slaves.

_____ 1 in 510 of free blacks.

ments annually in clothing, ammunition, &c., and such articles as they require. Some of the recent purchases were in October, 1818. *Lake Huron*, 1,592,000 acres, at 1,200*l.* per annum; the *Mississagua*, 648,000 acres, at 522*l.* per annum. In November same year, the *Rice Lake*, of 1,861,200 acres, at 740*l.* per annum; in April, 1819, the *Long Wood*, of 552,190 acres, at 600*l.* per annum; in February, 1820, the *Mohawk*, purchase of 27,000 acres, at 450*l.* per annum; being 4,680,390 acres, at an annual charge of 3,512*l.*, which is defrayed by an appropriation of part of the amount received for fees on the grants of land to emigrants.

White population of Upper Canada in 1823 and 1832, exclusive of King's troops, which in 1823 amounted to 1123; accompanying these, there were of women, 102; children, 168. The number was less in 1832.

DISTRICTS.	In 1823.			In 1832.					Acres of Land. In 1832.		Total Acres of Land.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.		Females.		Total.	Culti- vated.	Unculti- vated.	
				Under 16 yrs.	Above 16 yrs.	Under 16 yrs.	Above 16 yrs.				
Eastern.....	7707	7172	14879	5640	5692	5208	5692	21765	66435	341960	408395
Ottawa	1479	1081	2560	246	366	265	252	5293	12775	90409	103184
Bathurst	5272	4849	10121	4973	5353	4673	4637	19636*	44996	313303	358299
Johnstown	7885	6856	14741	6280	6645	5671	5703	24299	69534	29761	99295
Midland	14788	12907	27695	9419	10373	8947	8718	37457	154936	432055	586991
Newcastle	4988	4304	9292	2277	2470	2042	1927	8716	796235	346220	1142455
Home	8591	2018	16609	9897	11350	9489	9914	40650	115053	548238	663291
Gore	6838	6319	13157	7421	8028	6876	6849	55488	130821	421088	551909
Niagara.....	9128	8424	17552	6362	6312	5708	5799	24181	106324	352913	439237
London	8813	7798	17539	7707	7553	7361	6320	28841	104205	480396	584601
Western	3749	3203	6952	2819	2820	2702	2286	10627	29651	184819	214470
Total.....	79238	70931	150169	63041	66962	58942	58097	276953	1630965	3541162	5172127

* Darlington, Levant, and Horton, not included, and amounting to 790 souls.

In consequence of the increasing interest felt in England regarding everything relating to the Canadas, and especially the upper province, where so many persons have now near relatives and friends, and also on account of the field for emigration which those colonies present, I think a more detailed view of the statistics, &c. of each district or country will be acceptable to my readers. I begin, therefore, with the eastern district, which lies along the St. Lawrence, as the traveller proceeds from Montreal towards Lake Ontario. The following return regarding the district in question, was printed by the House of Assembly in 1833¹.

The Eastern district is formed into three counties, and these again are subdivided into 12 townships; viz. in *Glengarry County*:—Lancaster, pop. 2230, amount of property rateable, 28,749*l.*; Charlottenburgh, p. 4576; prop. 58,619*l.* Kenyon, p. 1573; prop. 14,645*l.* Lochiel, p. 2152; prop. 26,129*l.*—Total p. 10,531; prop. 128,132*l.* *Stormont County*:—Cornwall Town, p. 1047; Ditto Township and Roxborough, p. 3539; prop. 60,925*l.* Finch, p. 413; prop. 4169*l.* Osnabruck, p. 2313; prop. 30,868*l.*—Total pop. 7312; prop. 95,962*l.* *Dundas County*:—Williamsburgh, p. 1586; prop. 25,887*l.* Matilda, p. 1448; prop. 17,237*l.* Mountain, p. 707; prop. 6708*l.* Winchester, p. 181; prop. 1345*l.*—Total pop. 3922; prop. 51,177*l.* The district commences at the boundary lines separating Upper and Lower Canada, and runs along the St. Lawrence, with part of Lake St. Francis (an expansion of the St. Lawrence), and the Long Sault rapid² in front, until it reaches the adjoining district

¹ Tables containing minute details of each district are given in the large edition of this work.

² While this sheet was going to press, I received information from Canada, that the Americans contemplate an improvement, on their own side of the river, of the navigation of St. Lawrence past these rapids. The following is the communication alluded

of Johnstown; inland it is bounded by the Ottawa district. A range of elevated table land commences at Lochiel, and runs diagonally to the township of Matilda, whence it passes into the adjoining district.

The soil is rich and well-watered, cultivated and fertile; some of it has been granted to discharged soldiers, a good deal to the children of New England loyalists, and the Canada Company possesses some lots in it.

The district in the rear of the one just described, and bordering on the south shore of the Ottawa, from the Rideau River to the St. Lawrence, is termed the Ottawa district; its statistics are as follow:—

Prescott County:—Hawkesbury, E. pop. 833 (no returns of

to, and it contains proof of the ever active mind of our neighbours:—"The Grass River is now navigable by steam-boats, from where it empties into St. Lawrence to within about three miles of the village of Massena. From this point, on the Grass River, there is a deep ravine of low land to within about half a mile of the head of the Long Sault Rapids; this half mile would require a deep cut, through a clay bank, of perhaps 30 or 40 feet, and probably not more than two locks would be required on the entire route, which is only about five miles from the St. Lawrence to the Grass River. The St. Lawrence is already navigated by a steam-boat, on the Canada side, several miles below the point where this proposed canal will enter the St. Lawrence; and the legislature of Upper Canada made an appropriation last winter, for a canal round the Long Sault Rapids, which will probably cost ten times as much as the one now alluded to. This improvement would bring the entire carrying trade of the St. Lawrence through this channel, and extend facilities to the American side which can never be enjoyed by our Canada neighbours."

rateable property in the Ottawa district). Hawkesbury, W. pop. 1440. Longueuil, 855. Alfred, 112. Caledonia, 311. Plantagenet, 613 :—Total, 4164. *Russell County* :—Clarence, pop. 125. Cumberland, 1161. Gloucester, 653. Osgoode, 198. Cambridge (no return). Russell, 37 :—Total, 1129.

The returns for the Ottawa are not complete ; it is, however, but thinly settled ; the lands are good, but low and marshy ; along the Rideau Canal cultivation is progressing, and as civilization increases, those very lands which are now considered useless, marshy soils, will become the most fertile sections of the country.

The district which follows in the official documents is Johnstown, which lies along the St. Lawrence to the westward of the Ottawa and Eastern districts, and through the centre of which the Rideau canal passes.

The only returns I have been able to obtain are as follow :—

Leeds County :—Burgess, p. 304. Grosby, N. 185. Ritley, 1071. Yonge, 2894. Leeds and Lansdowne rear, 842. Elizabeth's Town, 4350. Bastard, 1825. Grosby, S. 554. Leeds and Lansdown Front, 1025. Elmsley, 1070 :—Total, 14,120. *Grenville County* :—Oxford, 1292. Edwardsburgh, 1584. Wolford, 1121. Gower, S. 646. Montague, 755. Gower, N. 245. Marlborough, 445. Augusta, 4091 :—Total, 10,179. The total of rateable property for the two Counties, amounts to 281,090*l.* ; Assessments, 1171*l.*

The soil in Johnstown is generally good, and it is advantageously situated. The district on the north, bounded by the River Ottawa, is called Bathurst, an idea of whose progress may be formed from the following table :—

Carleton County :—Nepean, p. 2810 ; prop. 20,031*l.* Goul-

burn, p. 1913; prop. 17,927*l*. March, p. 426; prop. 6115*l*.
 Torbolton, p. 96; prop. 1562*l*. Fitzroy, p. 327; prop. 6413*l*.
 M'Nab, p. 318; prop. 2751*l*. Huntley, p. 1031; prop. 9252*l*.
 Pakenham, p. 408; prop. 3880*l*. Total, 7329; prop. 67,931*l*.
Lanark County:—Beckwith, p. 2217; prop. 18,387*l*. Drum-
 mond, p. 2472; prop. 25,135*l*. Bathurst, p. 2019; prop.
 19,476*l*. Sherbrooke, N. p. 262; prop. 2342*l*. Ditto, S. p.
 98; prop. 1179*l*. Dalhousie, p. 1019; prop. 11,661*l*. Lanark,
 p. 1845; prop. 16,676*l*. Ramsay, p. 1775; prop. 16,470*l*.
 Total pop. 11,707; prop. 111,326*l*.

The townships on the Ottawa, N.W. of Bathurst district, are in great demand: lumberers now go 150 miles beyond Lake Chat; and as the Ottawa has few rapids to the northward, towards its junction with Lake Nipissing, we may command a shorter communication between Montreal and Georgiana Bay, and Lake Huron, than we now have through Lakes Ontario, Erie, and the Detroit, with the great additional advantage of its being beyond reach of the threats of the American Government. A great part of this district is colonized by Highland and Lowland Scotchmen, whose prudent, thrifty habits admirably qualify them for emigrants.

The next division, as we proceed westward, is the long and extensive tract called the *Midland District*, whose base or southern extremity rests on the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, in the parallel of 44° south latitude, while its northern boundary extends to 46.30, and is terminated on the N.E. by the Ottawa river. Its population and property are as follow:—

Frontenac County:—Kingston Town, pop. 4196; prop. 72,877*l*. Ditto, Township, p. 3013; prop. 38,661*l*. Pitts-
 burgh, p. 987; prop. 11,643*l*. Loughborough, p. 1112; prop.

13,391*l.* Portland, p. 484 ; prop. 6325*l.* Wolf Island, p. 611 ; prop. 5533*l.* Total, p. 10,403 ; prop. 148,430*l.* *Lennox and Addington Counties* :—Ernestown, p. 3763 ; prop. 60,582*l.* Fredericksburgh, p. 2556 ; prop. 38,901*l.* Adolphus Town, p. 666 ; prop. 13,337*l.* Richmond, p. 1367 ; prop. 18,326*l.* Camden, p. 1780 ; prop. 20,626*l.* Sheffield, p. 89 ; prop. 1176*l.* Amherst Island, p. 512 ; prop. 5569*l.* Total, p. 10,733 ; prop. 158,517*l.* *Prince Edward's County* :—Marysburgh, p. 1674 ; prop. 23,702*l.* Hallowell, p. 3525 ; prop. 57,405*l.* Sophiasburgh, p. 2137 ; prop. 36,588*l.* Hillier, p. 1733 ; prop. 27,698*l.* Ameliasburgh, p. 1722 ; prop. 24,079*l.* Total, pop. 10,791 ; prop. 169,472*l.* *Hastings County* :—Sidney, p. 2237 ; prop. 33,419*l.* Thurlow, p. 1511 ; prop. 43,867*l.* Rawdon, p. 409 ; prop. 4669*l.* Marmora, p. 205 ; prop. 3823*l.* Huntingdon, p. 271 ; prop. 3000*l.* Madoc, p. 205 ; prop. 1984*l.* Tyendinaga, p. 692 ; prop. 7806*l.* Hungerford (no ret.). Total, p. 5530 ; prop. 98,568*l.*

The five districts now detailed may be considered as forming the eastern section of the province, and present generally a moderately elevated table land, declining towards its numerous water-courses ; the timber of the forests is large and lofty, and of every variety. The soil, though moist and marshy in many places, is extremely rich ; consisting chiefly of a brown clay and yellow loam, admirably adapted to the growth of wheat and every species of grain : the rivers and lakes are extremely numerous ; of the former may be mentioned as the most remarkable—the Rideau, Petite Nation, Mississippi and Madawaska, which have their sources far in the interior, generally to the westward, and which fall into the Ottawa : the Gannanoqui, Raisin, Cataraqui, Napanee, Salmon, Moira, and part of the Trent discharge themselves into the Bay of Quinté and the St. Lawrence : these streams, besides fertilizing the lands

through which they flow, afford, many of them, convenient inland communications, and turn numerous grist, carding, fulling and saw mills.

Besides numerous lesser lakes, there are the Rideau, Gannanoqui, White, (Henderson's) Mud, Devil, Indian, Clear, Irish, Loughborough, Mississippi, Olden, Clarendon, Barrie, Stoke, Marmora, Collins, Blunder, Angus, and Ossinicon. There are many roads throughout the section; the principal one is along the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Kingston, traversing Cornwall and Lancaster, through which a line of stage-coaches run between the two provinces, every lawful day, when steamboats cannot travel. Kingston, the maritime capital of Upper Canada, has, to the westward, the fine Quinté tract, in a prosperous state of cultivation.

By-town, in Nepean, on the south bank of the Ottawa, is most picturesquely situate; as is also Kinnel Lodge, the romantic residence of the Highland chieftain, M'Nab, on the broad, bold, and abrupt shore of the Lake of Chats. Perth is a thriving village in the township of Drummond, on a branch of the Rideau, occupying a central position between the Ottawa and St. Lawrence. There are several other rising settlements, which it would be impossible for me to enumerate.

The central section of Upper Canada embraces the large districts of Newcastle and Home—with a frontage of 120 miles along Lake Ontario, in 44.30 lat. and stretching back northerly to the Ottawa, Nipissing Lake, and French River in 46.30 north lati-

tude. The division and statistics of Newcastle are thus—

Northumberland County:—Hamilton, p. 2871; prop. 57,337*l*. Haldimand, p. 1857; prop. 31,067*l*. Cramaghe, p. 1905; prop. 25,125*l*. Murray, p. 1738; prop. 20,944*l*. Percy, p. 377; prop. 5349*l*. Asphodel, p. 265; prop. 3410*l*. Otonabee, p. 862; prop. 11,681*l*. Douro, p. 571; prop. 5328*l*. Smith, p. 753; prop. 8099*l*. Ennismore, p. 254; prop. 1772*l*. Monaghan, p. 850; prop. 10,114*l*. *Durham County*:—Hope, p. 2272; prop. 34,719*l*. Clarke, p. 919; prop. 10,761*l*. Darlington, p. 1098; prop. 13,741*l*. Mariposa, p. 208; prop. 1941*l*. Eldon, p. 406; prop. 2965*l*. Ops, p. 545; prop. 5126*l*. Emily, p. 1095; prop. 7704*l*. Cavan, p. 2173; prop. 20,769*l*. Total, p. 8716; prop. 97,726*l*.

The soil throughout this large district is generally good; and though the population is large, compared with other districts, there is yet abundance of room for more settlers. It is well watered by the Rice, Balsam, Trout, and other lakes, and by the Otonabee rivers, part of the Trent, &c. The extensive territory adjoining Newcastle, with its N.W. extremity resting on Georgiana Bay (an inlet of Lake Huron) is termed the Home District: it contains the capital of Upper Canada, Toronto (late York), and its statistics are as follow for 1834 as regards the population, and for 1832, in reference to the other parts.

York County. 1st Riding:—City of Toronto, p. 9174; prop. 95,628*l*. Township of York, p. 3544; prop. 51,879*l*. Vaughan, p. 2861; prop. 27,787*l*. King, p. 1672; prop. 13,904*l*. Etobicoke, p. 1290; prop. 17,023*l*. Total pop. 18,541; prop. 206,221*l*. *2nd Riding*:—Township of Toronto, p. 4990, Toronto Gore, p. 483; rateable property in the two latter Townships, 50,257*l*. Chinguacousy, p. 2728; prop. 22,562*l*. Caledon,

p. 1233; prop. 9483*l*. Albion, p. 1050; prop. 9587*l*. Total pop. 9624; prop. 91,889*l*. *3d Riding*:—Markham, p. 4436; prop. 54,572*l*. Whitby, p. 3212; prop. 27,131*l*. Scarborough, p. 1897; prop. 18,120*l*. Pickering, p. 1807; prop. 20,858*l*. Total pop. 11,353; prop. 120,681*l*. *4th Riding*:—Whitchurch, p. 2732; prop. 29,329*l*. Uxbridge Reach (no returns). East Guillimbury, p. 1389; prop. 18,887*l*. N. Guillimbury, p. 467; prop. 4097*l*. Brock, p. 1032; prop. 7528*l*. Georgiana, p. 855; prop. 3540*l*. Scott (no returns). Total pop. 8207; prop. 63,381*l*. *Simcoe County*:—Tecomseh, p. 1389; prop. 9945*l*. W. Guillimbury, p. 1293; prop. 13,394*l*. Mono, p. 1208; prop. 3021. Oro, p. 881; prop. 1924*l*. Adjala, p. 787; prop. 4003*l*. Medante, p. 448; prop. 479*l*. Thorah, p. 431; prop. 3860*l*. Innisfil, p. 406; prop. 596*l*. Tiny and Tay, p. 401; prop. 3110*l*. Vespra, p. 236; prop. 1912*l*. Essa, p. 167. Flos, p. 90; prop. 407*l*. Total pop. 7737; prop. 42,651*l*.

The central section of Upper Canada does not fall short in fertility, either of the east or west portions of the province: it is well watered; the Nottawasaga, Holland, Musketchsebé, Beaver, Talbot, and Black Rivers fall into Lake Simcoe; the Credit, Etobicoke, Humber, and Don Rivers flow into Lake Ontario. There are excellent roads throughout the section; a canal is projected through the Home District to connect Lakes Huron and Ontario. Toronto, the capital, is rapidly improving: in 1833 its population was—

Males above 16, 2,597.—Females above 16, 2,155.
Males under do. 1,404.—Females under do. 1,317.

4,001.

3,472.

In the suburbs—Macauley town, 558—from Os-
goodehall, where Macauley town ends, to Farr's
brewery, Lot-street, 400; from the eastward of King-

street to the Don Bridge, taking in all about the Windmill, 300; making a grand total of 8,731.

The next section of the province is termed the Western; it embraces the Gore, Niagara, London and Western Districts, and, circumscribed as it is by the waters of the great Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, it may be considered a vast equilateral, triangular peninsula, with its base extending from Fort Erie to Cape Hurd, on Lake Huron, measuring 216 miles, and a perpendicular striking the Detroit River at Amherstburgh, of about 195 miles in length; with an almost uniformly level, or slightly undulating surface, except a few solitary eminences, and a ridge of slightly elevated table land in the Gore and Niagara districts, averaging 100 feet, and at some points approaching to 350 feet in height. The whole tract is alluvial in its formation, consisting chiefly of a stratum of black and sometimes of yellow loam, above which is found, when in a state of nature, a rich and deep vegetable mould. The substratum is a tenacious grey or blue clay, sometimes appearing at the surface, intermixed with sand. Throughout the country, there is an almost total absence of stones or gravel, within the greatest arable depth, but numerous and extensive quarries exist, which furnish abundant supplies for building, &c. The forests are remarkable for the steady growth and the rich foliage of their trees: in several places immense prairies or natural meadows exist; extending for hundreds of miles, and with the vista delightfully relieved by occasional clumps of oak, white pine, and poplar, as if planted by man with a view

to ornament. With a delicious climate stretching from 42 to 44 north latitude, it is not to be wondered at that this section is the finest in Upper Canada. The statistics of the first, pursuing our route as before from east to west, are as follow :

Hatton County :—Flamborough, W. p. 1398 ; prop. 23,486*l*. Dumfries, p. 2936 ; prop. 42,514*l*. Nelson, p. 1809 ; prop. 23,250*l*. Waterloo, p. 2320 ; prop. 44,395*l*. Esquesing, p. 1700 ; prop. 21,915*l*. Beverly, p. 1050 ; prop. 13,036*l*. Flamborough, E. p. 712 ; prop. 10,056*l*. Grand River, p. 1967 ; prop. 29,277*l*. Erin, p. 611 ; prop. 6042*l*. Nichol, p. 134 ; prop. 5267*l*. Nasagiweya, p. 484 ; prop. 4926*l*. Trafalgar, p. 2730 ; prop. 33,523*l*. Eramosa, p. 421 ; prop. 5355*l*. Wilmot, p. 645 ; prop. 8681*l*. Woolwich, p. 439 ; prop. 14,704*l*. Guelph, p. 1068 ; prop. 9633*l*. Total pop. 20,424 ; prop. 296,060*l*. *Wentworth County* :—Ancaster, p. 2267 ; prop. 54,493*l*. Salt Fleet, p. 1769 ; prop. 19,914*l*. Glanford, p. 653 ; prop. 9425*l*. Barton, p. 1776 ; prop. 28,520*l*. Binbrook, p. 335 ; prop. 3851*l*. Total pop. 6800 ; prop. 116,203*l*.

The district to the southward of Gore, and termed Niagara, from being bounded to the east by the river and cataract of that name, is one of the finest and richest tracts in the world, and most eligibly situate in a bight, as it were, between the magnificent sheets of water, Erie and Ontario : its statistics are as follow :

Lincoln County :—Niagara Town, p. 1406 ; prop. 31,445*l*. Ditto Township, p. 1717 ; prop. 32,079*l*. Thorold, p. 2052 ; prop. 26,420*l*. Grimsby, p. 1614 ; prop. 25,914*l*. Clinton, p. 1572 ; prop. 28,571*l*. Bertie, 2159 ; prop. 31,836*l*. Stamford, p. 1493 ; prop. 30,568*l*. Grantham, p. 2454 ; prop. 38,240*l*. Gainsborough, p. 1252 ; prop. 18,068*l*. Louth, p. 1157 ; prop. 18,237*l*. Pelham, p. 1106 ; prop. 19,433*l*. Crowland, p. 841 ; prop. 13,165*l*. Willoughby, p. 569 ; prop. 11,852*l*. Humber-

stone, p. 1554 ; prop. 13,012*l.* Wainfleet, p. 842 ; prop. 11,516*l.* Gainsborough, p. 292 ; prop. 6643*l.* Claistor, p. 329 ; prop. 4385*l.* Total, p. 22,412 ; prop. 361,434*l.* *Haldimand County* :—Rainham, p. 340 ; prop. 6119*l.* Walpole, p. 480 ; prop. 5347*l.* Haldimand, p. 421 ; prop. 6152*l.* Moulton, p. 528 ; prop. 4619*l.* Total pop. 24,181 ; prop. 22,237*l.*

It will be perceived from the foregoing, that in this comparatively small district, the quantity of land in cultivation, and amount of rateable property, are very large in proportion to what may be observed in the other districts ; there is still however a large quantity of uncultivated land in Niagara.

The scenery throughout this part of Canada is extremely picturesque. Fort George, or Niagara, is the sea-port (if it may be so called) of the district ;—the fort is strong, and the neat town all bustle and gaiety, owing to the frequent arrival and departure of steam-boats, sloops and other vessels.

I now show the population and extent of the large territory termed the London District :—

Norfolk County :—Charlotteville, p. 1460 ; prop. 22,016*l.* Windham, p. 930 ; prop. 10,833*l.* Middleton, p. 361 ; Houghton, p. 141 ; prop. of the two latter, 5563*l.* Walsingham, p. 790 ; prop. 9245*l.* Townshend, p. 1847 ; prop. 25,813*l.* Woodhouse, p. 1298 ; prop. 19,427*l.* Total, p. 6827 ; prop. 92,897*l.* *Oxford County* :—Oakland, p. 490 ; prop. 5692*l.* Nissouri, p. 725 ; prop. 7431*l.* Norwich, p. 1977 ; prop. 21,493*l.* Zorra, p. 1801 ; prop. 9780*l.* Blenheim, p. 916 ; prop. 8365*l.* Blandford, p. 214 ; prop. 845*l.* Oxford, East, p. 568 ; prop. 4411*l.* Dereham, N. p. 193 ; Dereham, S. p. 143 ; property in the two latter, 2757*l.* Burford, p. 1302 ; prop. 14,864*l.* Oxford, W. p. 1141 ; prop. 13,714*l.* Total, p. 9470 ; prop. 89,352*l.* *Middlesex County* :—Malahide, p. 1948 ; prop. 21,113*l.* Delaware, p. 212 ; prop. 2060*l.* Ekfrid, p. 406 ; prop. 3038*l.* Williams, p.

251 ; prop. 379%. Westminster, p. 357 ; prop. 18,583%. Lobo, p. 684 ; prop. 5789%. Bayham, 1871 ; prop. 20,866%. Dorchester, p. 1576 ; prop. —. Mosa, p. 690 ; prop. 5545%. Aldborough, p. 637 ; prop. 5433%. Caradoc, p. 550 ; prop. 3824%. Goderich, p. 874. Southwold, p. 2404 ; prop. 26,704%. London, 4152 ; prop. 34,325%. Yarmouth, 2676 ; prop. 25,524%. Dunwich, p. 564 ; prop. 11,417%. Biddulph, part of, p. 70. Adelaide, part of, p. 718. Total pop. 20,616 ; prop. 184,600%.

This immense district has the advantage of a great extent of water frontier, along the shores of Lakes Erie and Huron, besides a large portion of the Thames, and the river Ouse on Lake Erie, and Aux Sables and Maitland on Lake Huron. London, though at present small, is in the heart of a fertile country, on the banks of the fine river Thames, and will no doubt rapidly increase ;—who can say but that at some distant (may it be far distant) day, the modern Babylon may be reduced to a heap of ruins, and its celebrity and fame be revived across the Western Atlantic ?

About the central part of the north coast of Lake Erie, the eccentric, but honest and philanthropic Colonel Talbot has founded a settlement which reflects credit on his head and heart. Ever since the year 1802, this benevolent man has persevered in opening the fine country around him to the English emigrant. The Upper Canada Company have their land in this district ; the scenery around which, on the river Maitland, is more English-like than that of any other part of America.

Extensive roads are now making in every direction, and the London district offers a most eligible spot for the consideration of the intending settler.

Western District Census.—Townships:—Sandwich, males 1176, females 1072. Malden, m. 685, f. 666. Colchester, m. 351, f. 316. Gosfield, m. 441, f. 350. Mersea, m. 179, f. 170. Maidstone and Rochester, m. 178, f. 148. Tilbury and Romney, m. 231, f. 161. Raleigh, m. 350, f. 341. Harwich, m. 287, f. 175. Howard, m. 444, f. 408. Oxford, m. 189, f. 163. Camden, m. 98, f. 71. Dacon, m. 163, f. 127. Zone, m. 154, f. 101. Chatham, m. 143, f. 143. Dover, m. 357, f. 318. Sombra, m. 165, f. 139. Walpole Isle, m. 38, f. 37. Moore, m. 76, f. 82. Total of inhabitants, 10,687. The total amount of rateable property is 134,874*l*.

In addition to the foregoing, I have a return of the population of each parish in Upper Canada, to each of which there is a clergyman, whose fixed salary averages on the maximum 200*l*., and minimum 100*l*.; *Eastern district.*—Cornwall, 3,900; Matilda, 1801; Osnabruck, 2468; Williamsburgh, 2003. *Bathurst ditto.*—Perth, 2442; Beckwith, 2256; Richmond, 1376; March, 1604; Goulburn, unknown. *Johnstown ditto.*—Brockville, 4195; Prescott, 3087; Yonge, &c. 2392; Oxford, 1052. *Midland ditto.*—Kingston and township, 6937; Bath, Ernestown, &c. 3470; Adolphus Town, 617; Hallowell, 3313; Belleville, 2676; Murray, 1314. *Newcastle ditto.*—Coburg, 2420; Port Hope, 1757; Cavan, 1777; Peterborough, 652. *Home ditto.*—York and township, 8750; Toronto, 2752; Markham, 3411; Vaughan, 1724. *Gore ditto.*—Ancaster and Barton, 2027; Hamilton and Dundas, 1597; Brantford and Indians, 2756; Grand River, 987; Guelph, 821. *Niagara ditto.*—Niagara, 2890; Chippawa, Stamford, and Queenstown, 1532; Grimsby, 1398; St. Catherine's, 2770; Fort Erie, 2082. *London ditto.*—St. Thomas,

1900 ; Woodhouse, 1067 ; London, 3360 ; Adelaide, 457 ; Caradoc, unknown. *Western ditto*.—Amherstburg, 1228 ; Sandwich, 2213 ; Chatham, 249.

The foregoing detail will afford a more complete and accurate view of the progressive state of the colony, than pages of descriptive writing : the reader will perceive the increase of population in each district for a series of years, and then its actual amount at present. The quantity of land cultivated and occupied by that population, the stock on the land, and the value of the property sunk in it, is given in the large Edition of this Work.

Number of Houses, Mills, Stores, &c. in each district.

DISTRICTS.	Houses in Upper Canada.										Mills, &c.			Merchants' shops.	Storehouses.	Phaetons, gigs, &c.	Pleasure waggon.
	Square timber, 1 story.	Additional fire-places.	Square timber, 2 stories.	Frame under 2 stories.	Additional fire-places.	Brick or stone, 1 story.	Additional fire-places.	Frame, brick, or stone, 2 stories.	Additional fire-places.	Total of houses.	Wrought by water.	Additional pair of stones.	Saw.				
Eastern	545	3	738	45	36	12	66	52	1385	17	6	29	70	18	37		
Ottawa	140	13	65	17	10	1	14	17	232	6	6	13	16	6	5		
Johnstown	211	6	517	58	269	28	192	144	1202	28	14	46	83	39	15		
Bathurst	86	18	34	34	155	37	31	31	304	23	2	22	70	2	11		
Midland	250	6	1694	229	324	67	477	541	2750	44	17	91	146	21	42	193	
Newcastle	60	4	11	609	109	1	119	209	800	22	11	51	73	6	13	73	
Home	428	31	91	1070	177	34	42	652	533	2275	69	47	163	143	56	121	
Gore	320	6	79	845	159	51	5	150	193	1445	31	22	90	91	22	109	
Niagara	507	39	289	805	180	247	107	284	403	2132	32	18	72	84	20	217	
London	169	10	6	969	147	3	113	109	1260	37	11	88	55	7	1	46	
Western	478	16	26	126	21		35	33	665	10	2	5	34	4	81	24	
Total.....	3194	153	557	7438	1137	1128	299	2133	2265	14450	319	156	670	865	96	851	

I have given, in order to render the view complete, the preceding table of the number and description of the houses occupied in each district, the sort of houses (indicating comparative stages of wealth), and even the additional fire-places, which luxury or convenience may require; also the number of merchants' warehouses and stores, the number of different kinds of mills, and the vehicles kept for pleasure. Let those who peruse these facts remember that, the comforts and wealth thus produced within a few short years, arise from the united labours of Englishmen, Irishmen, and Scotchmen, who have transplanted all the virtues of their progenitors to the forests of America, and left behind them most of the vices which disgrace their native land.

In concluding this section, I shall only add, that all who have visited Upper Canada unite in their commendations of the hospitality, frankness, and industry of the farmers, and the urbanity and gentlemanly demeanour of the upper classes, whose numbers are by no means so few as might at first be supposed.

In the present edition [Feb. 6th, 1838] I cannot help adverting to the brave and loyal manner in which the Upper Canadians acted on the occasion of the late disastrous scenes in both Provinces. With such a population, England has nothing to fear against the Americans; in fact, if war should unfortunately occur, the people on the frontier of the United States would pay dearly for their unprovoked aggressions.

CHAPTER V.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS, &c.—STAPLE PRODUCTS
OF THE CANADAS.

THE New World, when discovered, was found to possess few animals, and those neither large nor dangerous to man. Some are peculiar to the American Continent, but it is probable that many species have become utterly extinct. I may advert briefly to a few, which however a few years more of extended colonization and civilization will utterly extirpate.

The *Moose Deer* is the largest wild quadruped of the continent—being in height seven feet (exceeding a tall English horse), and weighing from 10 to 12 cwt. : the large palmated horns, the immense down-cast head, a short neck and thick body, give it a savage aspect; but the animal is timid and inoffensive, even when attacked by the hunter. The upper lip, called the *mouffle*, is very large, broad, and pendant, and the hoofs sharper and more stiff than those of the rein-deer, somewhat resembling the camel's; its nostrils are very wide, the upper jaw is without teeth, and the legs are so long, and the neck so short, that the animal cannot graze, but browses on the leaves and young shoots of trees. The male is larger than the female, the latter without horns, and with shorter and lighter coloured grey

hair, mixed with reddish—going eight months with young, and bringing forth from one to three at a birth. The moose, like the sheep, is easily domesticated—it is not gregarious like the other species of deer, but generally the male, the female, and one or two fawns accompany each other: the flesh is exceedingly delicate and nutritious, and the skin valuable for its softness.

There are a great variety of common deer, but the elk is now rarely met with.

The *Cariboo* is distinguished from the moose by having brow antlers, which are rounder than the horns of the latter, and meet near the extremities. It is not so tall as the moose, and is of such amazing swiftness as to be with difficulty caught.

The American Elk is the largest of the deer kind, and the skeleton is somewhat similar to those dug up in the bogs in Ireland; his horns are palmated like those of the moose, but consist of three divisions—1st, the brow-antlers; 2nd, the middle prongs (called the fighting horns); 3rd, the horns properly so called;—he sheds them annually, when a pith is left, which soon becomes protected by a cover resembling velvet, and in eight weeks the horns begin to grow again, and soon attain their usual size, which on a young animal of Upper Canada was thus measured: distance between the root of the horns, four inches; brow-antlers, one foot six inches; fighting horns, one foot six inches; longest horn, three feet four inches; from the tip of one horn to another, two feet six inches. The size of the elk, on which the foregoing measurement was made, was from the

snout to the tail, seven feet three inches ; height, four feet seven inches ; belly girth, five feet six inches ; withers, four feet ten inches ; length of the head, one foot eleven inches—of the ear, nine inches ; and from the tip of one ear to the other, two feet two inches.

There are a great variety of deer, some weighing nearly 300 lbs.

The Musk Ox somewhat resembles the buffalo, and is found principally in the arctic regions. Both the Musk Ox and the Bison are varieties of the domestic cow, with a rough covering of hair, and great strength and agility suited to their situation.

The Bison, which inhabits the western regions, is now seldom or never seen near the British settlements : he is shy and fearful of man, unless when wounded, when he turns on the hunters ; he is in appearance somewhat like an immense bull (weighing sometimes 2000 lbs.), of a brown colour, with two short black round horns, elevated shoulders, short and thick legs, naked stumpy tail, and the forehead, the chin, neck and dewlap, covered with long locks of woolly hair, which give to him a savage appearance.

The Wolf somewhat resembles an immense dog, of a dirty sallow or grey colour, with a black line along the back ; in weight, he has been known to exceed 90 lbs. ; the length of the body is five feet, exclusive of the tail, which is one foot six inches ; the circumference of the animal is two feet nine inches, and the fore-legs, each, one foot six inches long. He is very voracious, committing considerable depredations on

the sheep-fold, and howling in concert most hideously ; but the Canadian settlers and their dogs are fast exterminating the race. Wolverineens are common in the Northern territories, and very powerful animals.

Bears are numerous—generally black (except towards Labrador and Hudson's Bay), and of greater size than the European animal, having been known to weigh more than 400 lbs. Although carnivorous, they are timid, unless when wounded or hungry ; and in default of sheep, pigs, or other flesh, they feed on nuts, berries, corn, &c. On the approach of the cold season, the bear, without making any provision for winter, retires to a hollow tree or cave, where, according to the vulgar opinion, he sustains life by sucking his paws—the fact is, *Bruin* sleeps through the frost and snow months, and comes forth with the return of spring, to recruit his famished strength, and get fat before the revolving solstice again sends him back to a fasting dormitory,—which is prepared with sticks and branches, overlaid with a coating of warm moss.

The bear is exceedingly strong ; the largest will climb a tree like a cat, and they possess all the cunning of the fox, with a deal of the instinct of the dog : they are dexterous in catching smelt and small fish that abound in the Canadian streams ; the inmates of ant hills are frequently devoured wholesale by their arch-enemy, and the honey of bees is a temptation so irresistible, that *Bruin* often risks being stung to death or madness, for the sake of gratifying his sweet tooth. The black bear will seldom or never attack man ; indeed, the Indians

say that as soon as he hears the human voice, he scampers off, knowing full well that the armed biped is more than his match, with some villanous gun-powder. The flesh of the bear is palatable, and the ham considered a delicacy. The female is very seldom taken when with young, and it is said that gestation takes place in the winter retreat of the animal.

Foxes are numerous, and equally cunning as their European brethren; their prevailing colour is a very bright red—some are jet black, others of a silvery grey, and in the polar regions, white; when hard-pressed for food, the last-mentioned, it is said, will prey upon each other.

Hares are abundant, and turn white in winter as in Norway.

The *Racoon* somewhat resembles the fox, with head and teeth like the dog—of a brown colour, with large and greenish eyes, surrounded by a circle of black. The tail is round, bushy, tapering to the end, and annulated with several black bars: the fore-legs are shorter than the hind, both armed with sharp claws, enabling the animal to leap from tree to tree, like the squirrel, with surprising agility: it is often tamed, and the fur is preferable to that of the beaver.

Martins and *Wild Cats* are numerous; between the two a deadly enmity exists, the former, which resemble the weasel in appearance, often killing the latter.

Porcupines, *Squirrels*, and various small animals with fine furs, under different names, are abundant in America.

The *Beaver*, forming the connecting link between quadrupeds and fish, is numerous in North America. The length of this singular amphibious animal is about two feet nine inches, with very short fore-feet and divided toes, while the hinder are membranous, and adapted for swimming; the body is covered with a soft glossy fur; the tail is oval, scaly, destitute of hair, and one foot long;—it has sixteen grinders, eight in each jaw, four front teeth, called incisors, of which the two upper are truncated, and excavated with a transverse angle, and the two lower transverse at the tips. With the incisors, trees of soft wood are cut down, of the diameter, it has been said, of eighteen inches—while the truncated grinders serve to break hard substances.

The instinct of these animals, which prompts them to unite in communities and live in houses of their own construction, is well known: their habitations are built in ponds or running streams; when building in the latter, the sagacity of the beaver enables it to choose a place easily dammed, which they accomplish by cutting down wood of the requisite thickness (about eight inches in diameter), placing the piling up and down the stream, connecting the stakes with mud, and finally cementing and coating the whole with a mortar made of twigs and a tenacious clay, using their tails as trowels, with all the expertness of a ‘free and accepted mason.’ When the dam is constructed, the beavers proceed to erect their château, which is generally two or three stories high, with walls of five feet thick, on which the last coating of mud plaster is not put until the frost sets

in, by which means it is frozen so hard, that the wolvereen, their great enemy, cannot break through; and the house is so constructed, that the upper floor is above the level of the highest flood, and perfectly dry in the worst of times, while a sluice is left to carry off any surplus water¹. The trees which are nearest the water are chosen to furnish building materials, and cut in such a manner, that when they fall it will be into the stream, so that they may be readily floated to the spot where they are wanted. Some of the large houses have several apartments; but generally each family of beavers has its own house, though they all labour together in rearing the common edifice.

The shape of the beaver-castle is oval, and so well roofed in as to be perfectly waterproof. When the beavers build in a pond, they do not form a dam, but select a situation which will admit of an open passage from the cellar on the shore or river bank, to the water under the ice, in which several breathing holes are kept always open. The winter food, consisting of poplar logs, pieces of willow, alder, &c. is collected in autumn, and sunk in the water near the dwelling houses, which they generally build in places where a certain thick root grows in the water or on the margins of lakes, and of which they are particu-

¹ It is a remarkable circumstance, that the great wild meadows, or savannahs of America, have been caused by the beaver-dams, which, by covering the ground with water, destroy the trees and bushes, and form reservoirs for the melted snows and autumnal rains to deposit the rich particles of the soil swept from the high lands. May not this account for the large prairies found totally destitute of trees?

larly fond. When the community of beavers increases, either by immigration or birth—rendering an addition to their township necessary; or when from being disturbed by the Indians or other enemies, they deem it advisable, after consultation, to shift their dwellings—the work of cutting down the timber, and preparing the new dam, commences in the middle of summer, though they wait for the setting in of the frost, before attempting to complete the work.

Such is the ingenuity of this extraordinary animal; which, it may be added, is easily tamed, and of scrupulously cleanly habits, either in its own house or in that of man, and whose instinctive sagacity is so great, that when caught, or even when perceiving the approach of an enemy, it gives a smart blow on the water with the flat part of its tail, in order to give the alarm to its companions.

The *Musk Rat*, or *Musquash*, is amphibious, resembling the beaver in its habits, and is about 15 inches in length. It is said that in winter, when the ponds or rivers are entirely frozen over, the family of the musquashes build huts on the ice of sticks, rushes, and mud, keeping a hole open under the building, for the purpose of getting into the water for fish or other food.

The *Otter* somewhat resembles the beaver, but its teeth are like those of the dog; it does not build like the beaver, and is said not to be an amphibious animal in the true sense of the word.

There are several other amphibious animals in E.

America, of which we know little or nothing ; among these is the

WALRUS (sea-Horse or sea-Cow), which has now deserted the shores of the gulph of St. Lawrence, and is only to be met with on the north coast of Labrador and about Hudson's Bay. In shape, the walrus is somewhat like the seal, but of great size, a full grown male weighing 4,000 lbs. They are gregarious, extremely attached to their young, in defence of whom, or when wounded, they will use their formidable tusks with terrible effect ; but they are unable to defend themselves out of the water, and when attacked in this situation, set up a most piteous and heart-rending cry, or rather howl.

BIRDS.—The coldness of the climate of Lower Canada is unfavourable to an extensive variety of birds : many of the feathered tribe are birds of passage, and in general they differ little from the birds of the same name in Europe. There are varieties of the eagle, hawk, owl, crow, woodpecker, swan, goose, duck, gull, pigeon, plover, partridge, snipe, and grouse, and also of many of the smaller winged race. The plumage of the American birds is far more splendid than that of their congeners in Europe, but the latter are compensated for their want of brilliant exterior, by the rich and varied melody in which they surpass their transatlantic namesakes. Many, if not most, of the birds of Lower Canada are migratory : the wild goose, duck, teal, and such tribes, leave Canada, during the summer, for more northerly and cooler regions ; while the summer birds migrate

southerly during the period of intense cold. There is good shooting in Canada ; but it is purchased at an expense of great hardship, and no little danger, amidst the lakes and forests of the uncultivated country. Most of the birds are reckoned delicacies, in particular the wild pigeon, of a beautiful blue plumage, tinged with shades of green, red, and gold, and whose numbers are so great as to darken the sky for miles, when annually migrating towards the North.

In Upper Canada the native birds are numerous, and though differing in some instances and in some respects from those of England, they are popularly known by the appellations of turkey, goose, swan, duck, brant, water hen, pheasant, partridge, quail, pigeon, eagle, hawk, raven, vulture, crow, owl, whip-poor-will (so called from its cry), bat, swallow, robin, lark, heron, pelican, gull, snipe, plover, diver, king-fisher, black and blue birds, jay, mocking bird, wood-pecker, cuckoo, sparrow, snow bird, wren, humming bird, with many others ; all indicating that the emigrant need not fear being deprived in America of the company of his usual feathered warblers or water birds.

There are snakes as in England, but few of a venomous nature ; many of them are exquisitely beautiful. The intelligent and patriotic traveller, Mr. N. Gould, has favoured me, among many other valuable communications, with the following observations on the rattle-snake of North America. The rattle-snakes are caught with cleft sticks by the Indians, who instantly cut off their heads before they have an

opportunity of biting themselves, and afterwards use them for food. It is universally acknowledged, that cold weather weakens or destroys their poisonous qualities, and that in the spring, when they come forth from their places of torpid concealment¹, they are innocuous till they have got to water ; and at that time, they have so strong and peculiar an odour, as to cause sickness to those who hunt them. In some parts of Ohio they are still numerous, and in a few spots of Upper Canada ; but to the generality of Americans in the long-settled parts, and to the Canadians, they are as rare as to Europeans. There are some persons who doubt their fascination, but others, who have paid much attention to the subject, speak positively of this power ; one gentleman, indeed, asserted that, in a swamp, near his house, he used to kill numbers, being led there by seeing the black-birds (a species of the starling) flying round and round in narrower circles, under the paralyzing effect of their fascination : he added that, when once the attention of the snake was withdrawn by his presence from its prey, the charm was broken, and the birds flew away.

Several varieties of lizards and frogs abound ; and the land crab, to be met with on the north shore of Lake Erie, has some resemblance to a lizard. Insects abound, and are of every variety of colour. Mosquitoes and sand flies are troublesome in the new lands. A species of fresh water tortoise, or land turtle, is found on the shores of the lakes, and is

¹ Petrified beds or nests of snakes are often found in digging canals, &c.

tolerable food; seals have been seen on the island in Lake Ontario, and there are reports of a cracken, or large serpent, having been observed on the north shore of the same lake.

For fine fish, the waters of Upper Canada are unequalled: the sturgeon weighs from 75 to 100 lbs., and is capital eating; the shell-back species have been taken in Lake Ontario. The *mosquenonge*, rather a rare fish, weighing from 50 to 60 pounds, is preferred to our salmon. The trout of the upper lakes attains the size of 80 or 90 pounds, and resembles the salmon in colour, but is not so highly flavoured; the white fish resembling the shad, is plentiful; the pike of Ontario weighs from three to ten pounds; the pickerel is not so round as the pike, shorter, flatter, and deeper; there are three species of bass; the perch weighs about a pound, and is a good pan fish; among the other species are dace, chub, carp, mullet, suckers, billfish, lake herrings, and eels; the latter are not caught, I believe, beyond the Falls of Niagara, where they may be observed endeavouring to ascend the slimy and perpendicular rock, where it is over-arched by the water. The manner in which the fish are caught in Canada has been thus described:—Those living on the borders of the numerous lakes and rivers are provided either with a light boat, log, or, what is by far the best, a bark canoe; a barbed fishing spear, with light tapering shaft, about 12 or 16 feet long, and an iron basket for holding burning pine knots, and capable of being suspended at the head of the boat, when fired. In the calm evenings after dusk, many of these lights

are seen stealing out from the woody bays in the lakes, towards the best fishing grounds; and two or three canoes together, with the reflection of the red light from the clear green water on the bronzed faces of either the native Indian, or the almost as wild backwoodsman, compose an extraordinary scene: the silence of the night is undisturbed, save by the gurgling noise of the paddles, or the sudden dash of the spear, followed by the struggles of the transfixed fish, or perhaps the characteristic "Eh!" from the Indian steersman. In this manner sometimes 50 or 60 fish, of three or four pounds each, are speared in the course of a night, consisting of black bass, white fish, and sometimes a noble mosquenonge. A little practice soon enables the young settler to take an active part in this pursuit. The light seems to attract the fish, as they thickly congregate round it. But few fish are caught in this country by the fly: at some seasons the black bass will rise to it.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM ¹.—The vegetation of Canada is as varied as it is beautiful; it will be sufficient, however, to detail the loftier species of timber, which forms the staple produce of the colony. In the low and light sandy soil, almost every species of pine is produced, together with cedars and swamp ash; the dry and more elevated land yields oak, elm, ash, and birch of various kinds, as also maple, walnut, chesnut, cherry, hiccory, hazel, iron wood, thorn, &c. but the pines and firs are monarchs of the forest.

¹ The necessity for brevity has compelled a curtailment of this section; the subject is more fully treated on in the large edition.

I avail myself of a description by another hand, of the beautiful family of the Coniferæ.

SPRUCES.—PINUS BALSAMEA, L.—A beautiful evergreen tree, in open situations feathered to the ground, and rising in a pyramidal shape to the height of 30 feet or more; and, on these accounts, much planted for shrubbery and park scenery in Great Britain. The famous *Canada Balsam* is procured from this tree; it is found in small blisters in the bark, extracted by incision, and received in a limpid state into a shell or cup. Perhaps there is not a better varnish for water-colour paintings, than that which is prepared from this liquid resin. The branches of this, as well as the hemlock, are used by the Indians and Canadian voyagers, to sleep upon. In their winter voyages, they scrape the snow into heaps with their snow-shoes, making a kind of snow wall on each side of their lair, then strewing the ground with branches, wrap themselves in their blankets; and thus sleep, when the thermometer is many degrees below zero. In this way, between two Indians, did Captain Thompson sleep, in his unsuccessful attempt to overtake Captain Franklin in his arctic journey.

PINUS CANADENSIS, L.—A large tree, with beautiful foliage, in some degree resembling yew, vying in magnitude with the *Pinus Strobus*, or white pine: it is an ornamental tree, coveting dry sandy soils. The leaves have the flavour of juniper-berries, and are occasionally used by the country people to make a *ptisanne*. The bark is greatly used for tanning leather, even in preference to oak bark.

PINUS NIGRA.—A middle-sized tree, tall, straight, and taper; the foliage dense and dark. Large tracts of swamps are seen covered with this and other ever-greens, giving them a dark dismal aspect, hence called black swamps, or blackwood lands. From the spray of this tree is extracted the essence with which that wholesome beverage spruce beer is made; and the Indians turn to a valuable account the slender roots, for stitching the sheets of birch bark, of which their frail-looking but invaluable canoes are made. The root is merely slit longitudinally into strips as thick as packthread, moistened, twisted, and applied: the sewing is then payed over with resin extracted from the pine-tree, or its knots, by boiling them in water.

PINUS ALBA.—A tree very similar to the preceding one; but its foliage neither so dark in colour nor dense, having a blue cast; growing in drier soils. From this tree chiefly the Indians collect the gum with which they pay the seams of their bark canoes; it exudes on the surface, and at the knots and wounds, whence it is taken and melted, to free it from impurities.

PINUS RESINOSA.—A handsome tree, of large growth; bark scaly, and of a reddish colour. This tree is the glory of Canada; it grows on light and sandy soils throughout the country; competing in every respect with the yellow deals of the north of Europe.

The timber, in colour, quantity, and durability, appears to be in every respect equal to the best Riga; and, in one particular, superior, viz., that of being

more free from knots ; which in some parts of the country, particularly in Scotland, gives it a preference over Baltic : there is still, however, much prejudice to overcome.

PINUS BANKSIANA.—A small tree, rather shrubby, but varying in size according to the nature of the soil.

PINUS RIGIDA.—A tree of large growth, about the size of a red pine, said to be a native, but certainly of rare occurrence in Canada ; though abundant in some parts of the United States. So abundant is its resinous quality, that the knots are incorruptible, and being found in considerable quantities in groves consisting of this wood, they are collected by the Americans, piled upon a stone hearth, covered with soil and earth, and set on fire in the same manner as charcoal is made ; the heat causes the tar to leave the knots, and to flow over the hearth, by a groove cut in it for the purpose. The smoke of the same fires is condensed, and collected in wooden receptacles ; and thus by one process are *tar* and *lampblack* manufactured.

PINUS SEROTINA.—Little is known of this tree ; it is said by Purch to abound in the island of Anticosti.

PINUS STROBUS, L.—This tree, called in our English parks the *Weymouth pine*, is the most majestic of all the Canadian pines, and, with the exception of some of this family to be found in the neighbourhood of the Columbia river, on the north-west coast of America, reported to be 250 feet high and 50 feet in circumference, towers over all the trees

of the forest, being occasionally found of 150 feet in height, and 5 feet in diameter at the base. When growing in open situations, it is feathered to the ground; but, as generally found in Canadian forests, it is little more than an immense stick, with a quantity of brush at its head, in about the same proportion as the hair on the tail of an elephant. It is of this tree, that in general the forests of all British America are composed; and it is in fact peculiar to America. It is called in commerce *white pine*, *yellow pine*, or *American pine*.

The age to which this tree arrives is not known; 1500 annular divisions have been counted. It has been remarked, both in the United States and Canada, that in general the largest trees of this species stand blighted or dead, as if the remains of more ancient growth, or blasted by lightning. Perhaps, as has been generally supposed, the colder the situation, the slower the growth, and the stronger and harder the timber.

LARCHES.—PINUS PENDULA LE.—A tall taper tree. The timber is straight, grained, and strong, and suited for spars of ships; but inferior to white and black spruce for that purpose, on account of its greater weight; it burns briskly, and furnishes a great sudden heat, and is, therefore, in request as fuel for steam-engines on the St. Lawrence. Some idea of the immense consumption of fire-wood by steam-boats in America may be formed, when it is known that these boats are as numerous on their rivers, as coaches on our public roads, and that one of them of 80-horse power consumed on its voyage

from New York to Albany (about 130 miles), in 11 hours, 22 cords of wood, each 8 foot long by 4 feet wide and 4 feet high, or 2,816 cubic feet, costing 5 dollars, or 22s. 6d. per cord. The expense, and the quantity of space required on board, have led to the use of coals; and for the last two years, large quantities of coals have been shipped to New York and Philadelphia, from the Albion coal-mines at Picton.

JUNIPERUS L.—A small evergreen tree. It delights in a deep clay, or vegetable soil, subject to overflowings.

JUNIPERUS COMMUNIS DEPRESSA, L.—A low spreading shrub, about two feet high. Although hitherto the berries have not been used by the distiller, it is difficult to find a reason for the neglect.

JUNIPERUS SABERIA, L.—A low decumbent shrub, about six inches high. I am not aware that it is used medicinally in Canada; the leaves are, however, occasionally made up with hog's lard, for the cure of rheumatism.

THUYA, L.—This tree looks like a species of Cypress; it grows generally in moist grounds, or clay soils, subject to overflowings, and on the sides of hills, attaining a large size in favourable situations. In the Back Lands of the Mississippi, there are immense swamps covered with this wood, than which no prospect on earth can be more gloomy. It might have been supposed that the ancients, who dedicated the Cypress to funereal rites, had seen these "Black Swamps;" nothing so forbidding in a vegetable shape, exists in Europe.

The timber has the lowest specific gravity of all

Canadian hard wood, but the greatest durability. It is of slow growth, Michaux having counted 277 annular rings in a stem of 21 inches diameter.

TAXUS, L.—A recumbent evergreen shrub, rising obliquely to the height of four or five feet. In foliage it resembles Spruce; although called ‘Buis’ by the Canadians, it has little resemblance to Box. The berry is very similar to the fruit of the European species, found in shady woods, and the north sides of hills.

There are several varieties of the Oak,—all good woods when cut down in the proper season, and cured sufficiently before use. I cannot help thinking, however, that the rapid decay of many timbers is owing to their being cut in summer instead of in winter, and at the *full* instead of at the dark moon¹.

As regards the Canadian Oak, it is stated by Mr. McTaggart (the engineer who so ably distinguished himself while in the colony) that it is not so durable as that of the British, the fibre not being so compact and strong; it grows in extensive groves near the banks of large lakes and rivers, sometimes found squaring to 50 feet in length, by two feet six inches,

¹ Mr. Nathaniel Gould informs me, that he found in the United States, and in Canada, that the *wane of the moon* in the winter months was universally considered the best season for felling timber. The Americans contract for their ship timber, to be felled or girdled, between the 20th October and the 12th February. In fact, dry rot appears to me to be caused by the natural moisture or sap being left in the wood, and, therefore, the less there is in the tree when cut, the longer it will keep sound.

—its specific gravity greater than water; and, therefore, when floated down in rafts, it is rendered buoyant with cross-bars of pine. It is easily squared with a hatchet, and answers well for ship-building and heavy work,—will endure the seasons for about 15 years,—and does not decay in England so soon as in Canada. Another kind of timber, called the *scrubby oak*, is much like the British gnarly oak, difficult to work with the hatchet, but of a very durable nature. The *swamp oak* of Canada grows in marshy places,—is full of branches, irregular in form, and soft to work: it is extremely heavy, and when water-soaked, useful in forming wharfs and jetties in sandy bays, where there are no stones, and where piles cannot be driven.

The Birch tribe are numerous; the wood of the *betula nigra* is finely shaded, and susceptible of a high polish: and the sap drained in March and April, from all the varieties of birch, makes excellent vinegar; or a pleasant weak wine may be obtained by boiling and fermentation.

The American Maple is a beautiful tree in all its forms; that variety called the *bird's eye*, takes its name from its mottled hue; the *curled maple* is richly shaded in fibres, admits a high polish, and forms the ornamental work so much admired in the American packets. It is from a variety of the maple (*acer saccharinum*) that the celebrated maple sugar is made; the production of which, in Lower Canada, amounts to about 25,000 cwts. annually. The tree is large and shadowy, with richly tinted foliage in autumn; and its timber is valuable for its strength,

weight, closeness of grain, waving fibre, and susceptibility of polish. The sugar is extracted by evaporation from the sap, which it yields abundantly, when the bark and wood are wounded in spring; one tree yielding from a pint to two gallons per day. A plantation of maples is termed a *suegari*, and is justly considered valuable, as the sugar is rich, and pleasant to the taste, and sells from 3*d.* to 6*d.* per pound. The vegetable productions of the Upper Province are nearly akin to those of the Lower; the forest trees most prevalent are beech, maple, birch, elm, bass, ash, oak, pine, hickory, buttermint, balsam, hazel, hemlock, cherry, cedar, cyprus, fir, poplar, sycamore (or button wood), white wood, willow and spruce.

SPONTANEOUS VEGETATION.—How wonderful and how imperfectly understood are many of the ordinary operations of nature! No sooner does the axe of the woodman or the accidental burning of the forest destroy one class of trees and brush-wood—a class that may have apparently covered the soil for centuries—but another race, perfectly distinct, rises up, as though by magic, from the disturbed and discoloured soil, and covers it with beauty. The proofs of the almost universal principle of Spontaneous Vegetation throughout both the forests and prairie land of the new continent are so well known and acknowledged as to need no additional confirmation at the present day. We have met with continual evidences of its truth in every part of the east and west. It would seem that the seeds of one class of the plants and forest-trees must be deposited by some catastrophe beyond the action of light, heat, and at-

mospheric air, where they lie supplanted by another growth, and are forgotten, preserving, however, the vital principle for centuries in a dormant or torpid state, till accident or tillage brings them to a position favourable to their reproduction to light and life. One of the most remarkable instances of this extraordinary phenomenon, of frequent but well-attested occurrence, is, that the marl dug from pits thirty feet deep, in some parts of the Union, on being spread over the soil, becomes instantly covered with white clover; and in New Jersey this is the case with the mud dragged up from the bottom of the Delaware, and used for the purposes of manure ¹.

Many other trees and vegetable productions would claim notice, did space permit; I must conclude the section with observing, that all European plants, fruits, vegetables, grain, legumes, &c. yield even in greater abundance than in the old world; sarsaparilla, ginseng, and other medicines, are plentiful; but their virtues are as yet imperfectly known. Tobacco ², hemp, hops, may all be reared, in any quantity the mother country may require.

¹ Latrobe's Rambler in North America.

² Tobacco was used by the Indians in Canada, when discovered by the Europeans. Cartier, in his voyage to Canada of 1535, describes "a certain kind of herbe whereof, in summer, they make a provision for all the year, making great account of it, and only men use of it; first they cause it to be dried in the sunne, then weare it about their neckes wrapped in a little beaste's skinne, made like a little bagge, with a hollow piece of stone or wood like a pipe; then, when they please, they make powder of it, and then put it in one of the ends of the said cornet or pipe, and laying a coal of fire upon it at the other end,

STAPLE PRODUCE.—The principal productions of Canada may be partly judged of from the foregoing statements :—the colony is as yet decidedly agricultural, the principal exportable articles which do not come under that denomination, being timber and ashes. The production of timber is very great, and capable of being continued for many years : an idea may be formed of its extent from the fact, that the capital employed in the lumber (timber) establishments and saw-mills in the neighbourhood of Quebec, is £1,250,000 ; this sum is laid out in erecting saw-mills, forming log-ponds, building craft for the transport of deals, and forming a secure riding for the ships in the strong tide-way of the St. Lawrence, while shipping the timbers. The lumber trade is of the utmost value to the poorer inhabitants, as it furnishes their only means of support during the severity of a long winter, particularly after seasons of bad crops (frequent in the lower provinces) ; and as it enables young men and new settlers most readily to establish themselves on the waste lands.

There are manufactories of different articles established at Montreal and Quebec ; soap and candles are now exported ; in 1831, of soap, 81,819 lbs., and of candles, 31,811, almost entirely to the other northern colonies ; and the corn and flour trade of Canada promises to be a great source of wealth to the colonists.

Horned cattle, sheep, swine, &c. multiply with sucke so long that they fill their bodies full of smoke, till that it cometh out of their mouth and nostrils, even as out of the tonnell of a chimney."—Hakluyt, iii. 224.

astounding rapidity, and the European breeds seem improved on being transplanted to the American continent. The quantity of fish caught in the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, and in other streams, is very great; and the consumption of this diet is considerable, in consequence of the prevalence of the Roman Catholic faith. Fish oil is becoming an extensive article of export; as are also hides and horns. The peltry or fur trade has its outlet from the N. W. territories, through Lower Canada. I hope to see ere long, tobacco, hemp, wool, wax, rape and other oils, among the staple products of this fine colony. The value of the property is thus estimated:—Annually created, 17,417,696*l.*; moveable, 34,413,870*l.*; immoveable, 26,556,358*l.*; Grand Total, 78,387,924*l.*

Lower Canada.—The census of 1831 gives the agricultural produce of the colony as follows:—Area of sq. miles, 205,963. Acres of land occupied, 3,981,793. Acres of improved land, 2,065,913. Minots of wheat, 3,404,756. Do. of peas, 984,758. Do. of oats, 3,142,274. Do. of barley, 394,795. Do. of rye, 234,529. Do. of Indian corn, 339,633. Do. of potatoes, 7,357,416. Do. of buck wheat, 106,050. Neat cattle, 389,706. Horses, 116,686. Sheep, 543,343. Hogs, 295,137. Taverns, 1035. Spirit stores, 857. Grist-mills, 395. Saw do. 737. Oil do. 14. Fulling do. 97. Carding do. 90. Iron works, 103. Trip hammers, 18. Distilleries, 70. Pot and pearl ash manufactories, 489. Manufactories containing machinery, 64.

The activity and energy of the British over the

French population in Lower Canada is very strikingly manifested in the following document, which refers only to the district of Montreal.

The following is a statement of the amounts of stock in the public undertakings of the district of Montreal¹, held by the inhabitants of the two races composing the population of Lower Canada :—

ENGLISH CANADIAN INSTITUTIONS.	Capital.		Shares	British.	French.
	£.		No.		
Bank of Montreal.....	250000		5000	247400	2600
City Bank.....	200000		8000	192800	7200
Champlain and St. Lawrence } Railroad Company.....	50000		1000	49150	850
Montreal Water-works.....	70000		80	70000	
St. Lawrence Steam - boat } Company.....	65000		48	61615	3385
Montreal Steam - tow - boat } Company.....	40200	present value.	710	38518	1682
Ottawa and Rideau For- warding Company.....	33190		1172	32482	708
St. Lawrence Steam - boat } and Mail-coach Company. }	25000		1000	25000	
Montreal Gas-works.....	20000		1000	19400	600
St. Ann-market.....	15000	cost paid		13575	1425
Steam-boats and capital in- vested in the Forwarding Establishment on the St. Lawrence, above and be- low Montreal.....	50000			50000	
	818390			799940	18450
FRENCH CANADIAN INSTITUTIONS.					
Mutual Insurance Company...	40000			16281	23719
Bank du People—People's } Bank.....	80000	sup- posed.		30000	50000
	938390			846221	92169

Nineteen-twentieths of the Maritime Commerce of

¹ Quebec presents a still more remarkable example ; indeed there is only one house with a French name even in Quebec, and that business is carried on with British capital.

Canada is in the hands of the British community, which will sufficiently indicate the superior intelligence and activity of the English race.

The number of ships built in the Lower Province, with their registered tonnage, is—1825, ves. 61, tons 22,636; 1826, ves. 59, tons 17,823; 1827, ves. 35, tons 7540; 1828, ves. 30, tons 7272; 1829, ves. 21, tons 5465; 1830, ves. 11, tons 3059; 1831, ves. 9, tons 3250; 1832, ves. 13, tons 3952.

There is a large quantity of domestic manufactures made in the colony; the looms are in number upwards of 13,000: of linen, the average quantity spun annually is 1,000,000 French ells; of flannel, nearly an equal amount; and of woollen cloth, 1,150,000 ells. I cannot ascertain how much iron is produced at the forges of St. Maurice; the quantity however is considerable, and the metal is esteemed for its flexibility and strength. The American ashes (made from the residue of any burned plant, or timber, growing at a distance from the sea shore) contain a greater proportion of real potash than those of Dantzic or Russia. In fine, it rests with England to decide, whether the Canadians are to be forced to become a manufacturing people, or to remain principally agricultural, and furnish us with abundance of the necessaries of life, in return for our linens, woollens, and hardware. Instead of being supplied with tobacco from the United States, and with hemp, tar, and timber from the Baltic, we certainly ought to have recourse to this colony for these productions, for reasons dictated alike by nature and sound policy.

CHAPTER VI.

THE COMMERCE, SHIPPING, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF QUEBEC AND MONTREAL; VALUE OF THE TRADE, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—MONETARY SYSTEM—BANKS, ETC.

QUEBEC and Montreal are the shipping ports of *Upper* as well as *Lower* Canada.

The following is a Statement of the Number of Vessels cleared out at Quebec for the following Ports in 1833, 1834, 1835 :

LONDON.						LIVERPOOL.			
		Ships.		Tons.		Ships.		Tons.	
1833...Oct.	25	109	38,868	94	30,168	
1834... —	31	111	37,723	113	...	40,254	
1835... —	26	95	32,134	140	52,184	
Loading	—	21	6,989	21	8,474	

CLYDE.						CORK.				DUBLIN.			
		Ships.		Tons.		Ships.		Tons.		Ships.		Tons.	
1833...	Oct.	25	..	43	..	17,263	35	..	10,767	51	..	10,237	
1834...	—	31	..	38	..	17,000	42	..	12,423	41	..	10,382	
1835...	—	26	..	45	..	20,622	19	..	6,270	24	..	6,070	
Loading	—		..	9	..	4,092	7	..	2,265	3	..	777	

BELFAST.						HULL.		SUNDERLAND.			
Ships. Tons.						Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		
1833...Oct.	25	..	31	..	8,424	21	..	7,761	23	..	5,795
1834... —	31	..	44	..	12,211	34	..	12,363	20	..	4,924
1835... —	26	..	39	..	11,496	34	..	11,738	15	..	3,933
Loading —		..	3	..	943	6	..	1,918	7	..	1,831

Having now demonstrated the *amount of shipping*, I proceed to give the principal articles of import and export for 1832, in *quantity*, and not according to *value*.

Madeira, gal. 22,327 ; Port, do. 79,592 ; Teneriffe, do. 94,227 ;



Drawn & Engraved by J. & C. Walker

Published by G. B. Whittaker & Co., No. Maria Lane London 1836.

Fayal, do. 110; Sicilian and Spanish, do. 131,718; other kinds, do. 62,376. Brandy, do. 183,613; Gin, do. 60,520; Rum, do. 1,099,578; Molasses, do. 127,143; Refined Sugar, 1,655,348 lbs. Muscovado, do. 577,961 lbs.; Coffee, 174,901 lbs.; Leaf Tobacco, 125,774 lbs.; Manufactured, 147,109 lbs.; Tea, 983,256 lbs.; Salt, 287,436 lbs.; Merchandise, paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duty, 1,327,269*l*.

The following enumeration of the articles (in quantities) exported from Quebec by sea, in the year ending 5th January, 1834, will indicate the importance of the Colony.

QUEBEC.—Ashes, pot, 7579 brls. Do. pearl, 5175 do. Apples, 388 do. Beef, 3909 do. Ditto, half-barrels, 484. Beef, round, and Tongues, 18,887 lbs. Butter, 26,936 do. Biscuit, 2380 cwts. Flour, 59,651 brls.—FISH: Alewives, do. 657. Cod, 5617 cwts. Herrings and Mackarel, 575 brls. Ditto, 175 boxes. Shad, 118 brls. Salmon, 161 tierces. Do., 59 brls. Do., 23 half-brls.—GRAIN: Wheat, 106,301 minots. Indian Meal, 476 brls. Oats, or Rye, 429 do. Flax-seed, 1345 min. Oats, 6185 do. Do., 1882 bags. Pease, 1748 min.—Hams and Sausages, 43 kegs. Do., 10,884 lbs. Lard, 13,020 do. Pork, 10,118 brls. Do., 399 half-brls.—TIMBER: Ash, 1394 tons. Birch and Maple, 486 do. Elm, 11,528 do. Oak, 26,125 do. Pine, 188,778 do. Broad Planks, 4804 do. Battens, 89,478 pieces. Billets, 174 do. Deals, 2,083,302 do. Deal-ends, 69,865 do. Masts and Bowsprits, 776 no. Spars, 3104 do. Knees, 230 do. Oars, 17,973 do. Hoops, 77,990 do. Treenails, 23,756 do. Shingles, 37,100 do. Lathwood, 1946 cords. Staves, side and heading, 752,500 pieces. Do., Pipe and Puncheon, 2,939,049 do. Do., Barrel, 848,819 do. Deal ends, 4574 do. Do., 6426 packs. Handspikes, 13,028 no. Tobacco-leaf, 5890 lbs.—FURS: Beaver, 5490 skins. Bear and Cub, 264 do. Fox, 684 do. Fisher, 47 do. Lanx, 385 do. Minx, 530 do. Martin, 4536 do. Muskrat, 16,848 do. Otter, 729 do. Racoons, 4 do. Wolverine, 16 do. Castorum, 169 lbs. Seal Skins, 30 packs. Buffalo, 31 skins.

The Maritime Exports for the same year (1834)

from Montreal, which first became a port of entry in 1831, were as follows :—

MONTREAL.—Ashes, pot, Canada, 14,091 brls. Ditto, United States, 1334 do. Do., Pearl, Canada, 4436 do. Do., United States, 3740 do. Apples, 107 do. Biscuits, 335 do. Bones, 2000 pieces. Butter, 103 kegs. Candles, 100 boxes. Castorum, 260 lbs. FURS AND SKINS : Beaver, 3811 no. Bears and Cubs, 537 do. Fishers, 249 do. Fox, 751 do. Lynx, 187 do. Martin, 8322 do. Minx, 2016 do. Musk-rat, 49,538 do. Otter, 1871 do. Racoon, 130 do.—Flour, 32,218 brls.—GRAIN : Wheat, 547,357 minots. Pease, 186 do. Hides, raw, 2510 no. Beef, 1441 brls. Pork, 1266 do. Oil Cake, 48,000 lbs. Oars, ash, 1899 no. Staves, W. I. 218,433 do. Do., Standard, 98,671 do. Do., Barrel, 15,644 do. Do., Foreign, 7197 do.—TIMBER : Ash, 123 tons. Birch, 7 do. Basswood, 3 do. Elm, 203 do. Oak, 719 do. Pine, 1092 do. Boards, 28,171 pieces. Deals, 64,788 do. Deal-ends, 5853 do. Planks, 782 do. Handspikes, 6020. Soap, 110 boxes. Tobacco-leaf, 14,000 lbs.

IMPORTS OF LOWER CANADA IN 1836.

FROM	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Value 2½ per cent. Goods.	Other Imports.
				£. s. d.	
Great Britain	779	249845	10476	1329214 6 0	255552
Ireland	168	47264	2071	8121 13 0	4913
Jersey.....	1	220	12	440 6 0	102
Gibraltar	5	583	34	2651 1 0	4140
France	9	2309	81	1296 2 0	1426
Spain	1	195	10	—	—
Portugal	3	493	26	431 19 0	1600
Holland	2	545	25	—	18
Belgium.....	7	1922	84	—	—
B. N. A. Colonies .	169	17264	835	2261 5 0	83572
British W. Indies .	40	5825	303	498 4 0	195026
United States	24	6507	273	4824 5 0	10464
Other Places.....	4	1257	54	—	—
	1212	334209	14554	1349738 15 0	556813
At Gaspé	47	6700	371	—	7064
At New Carlisle ...	38	5561	289	—	3553
				567426 0 0	567430
Total	1297	346470	15214	1917164 15 0	sterling.

In Quebec alone the trade has been—

	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.
Exports ..	£720,066	.. 917,605	.. 862,440	.. 965,365
Imports ..	£698,718	.. 600,545	.. 528,762	.. 648,945

The Navigation carried on up to Montreal is shewn by the Arrivals Seaward since 1832 :—

	Vessels.	Men.	Tonnage.	Passengers.
1832	117 1,457 27,713 2,714
1833	137 1,562 30,864 2,046
1834	89 1,043 20,105 1,512
1835	109 1,165 22,729 1,205

Value of the Exports from Quebec and Montreal, in the year 1836; and also the Corn entered at Quebec :—

Exports to Great Britain, 620,087*l.*; Ireland, 143,893*l.*; B. N. A. Colonies, 159,413*l.*; B. W. Indies, 38,886*l.*; Oporto, 1,222*l.*; Jersey, 220*l.*; United States, 1,913*l.*: Total, 965,635*l.*
 —Value of Exports from Montreal, in 1836, 249,674; Barley entered at Quebec in 1836, 9,328 bushels; Wheat entered at Quebec in 1836, 364,544 do.

I must refer to the large edition of my “History of the British Colonies,” for more ample details of the trade of both the Canadas, of which the foregoing is but a brief outline.

The progress of trade between Upper and Lower Canada may be judged of from the rapid growth of Prescott, on the St. Lawrence, in the route from Montreal to Kingston, and distant from the former 127 miles, and from the latter 62 miles. In 1815, the largest vessel employed for the transit of merchandise between Kingston and Prescott, was one schooner of only 40 tons burden. In 1833, there

were 14 steam-boats of different sizes, from 30 to 500 tons, and 50 schooners from 40 to 150 tons. These are employed between Prescott and the ports on Lake Ontario, besides a number from Lake Erie, whose tonnages we could not ascertain. The register tonnages of the steam-boats and schooners amount to 5,647 tons! This speaks volumes in behalf of the resources of the upper province, as well as of the industrious and enterprising spirit of its inhabitants. The number of buildings in Prescott, in 1815, was barely eight houses; in 1833 it contained nearly 300 excellent buildings, some of which are not surpassed in size and elegance of structure by any in the province. Its population, in 1815, did not exceed fifty. In 1833, it numbered fully 1,400. Such is the rapid progress of agricultural improvement in Upper Canada, that she can supply the whole population with every kind of food, without importing; while the export of her raw and manufactured materials pays for all foreign luxuries, and leaves a balance in her favour. Her exports of wheat last year were 69,948 bushels; and of wheat flour 48,809 barrels. This year her exports will nearly double those of last year. These are cheering prospects. Although the yearly increase of her population, by emigration and otherwise, has, for some years past, been great, yet it has not kept pace with the increase of her trade. Since 1825, the forwarding trade at Prescott has more than doubled every three years. From these facts, we should infer that the population must be in prosperous circumstances. In 1815, the entire population of the upper province

did not exceed 40,000 souls; in 1833, it exceeded 300,000; having thus, in 18 years, increased more than seven-fold. In 1815, the business done was little more than nominal; at present it almost exceeds belief.

In reference to a topic now under discussion, I may observe that one of the most important branches of our commerce with the North American colonies is that in timber. This trade has, in our own possessions, a fixed capital employed in it to the amount of 2,150,000*l.* sterling, sunk in saw mills, canals, wharfs, warehouses, &c.; it enables the colonies to receive the vast immigration which has been pouring into them from the mother country; it provides the means of paying for the large and annually increasing quantity of British manufactures consumed in our colonies—it gives employment to nearly 300,000 tons of English shipping; it prevents us from being at the mercy of foreign countries, for an extensive supply of an article indispensable to a maritime nation, and which, previous to the creation of the Canada timber trade, gave to our rivals "*exorbitant profits and the power of enforcing arbitrary rates*¹;" it enables us in turn to govern the prices of foreign timber, for if colonial competition were removed, the Baltic merchants would not be slow in availing themselves of the monopoly which the destruction of the Canadian timber trade would give

¹ This is the language of the enactment of 1809, when Government encouraged the colonists to embark in the timber trade, by pledging its faith for protecting duties against undue foreign competition.

them; for to place the duties on the wood of each country on an equality, would be tantamount to the immediate destruction of our Colonial trade—the shipping engaged in which cannot make more than two voyages in the year, while the Baltic merchant may send his vessel four times to England in the same period—with this additional advantage, that he is not obliged to keep his ships lying idle during the winter, as is the case with the Canadian merchant—to say nothing of the *inferior cost* in building, and diminished charges in navigating a Baltic as compared with a British ship, though both now enter our ports on the same terms. If it be intended to reduce the duty on Baltic timber, a preliminary measure I trust will be, the total removal of the duty from our Colonial timber, or as British goods are admitted into the Canadas at $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., that no higher tax be levied on Canadian timber when imported into England¹.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—In the Lower Province the English weights are used, viz. lb. troy and avoirdupois. The standard wine gallon is the liquid measure; the Canada *minot*, for all grain, &c., ex-

¹ In 1703, the Pitch and Tar Company of Sweden endeavoured to raise the price of their commodities to England, by prohibiting their exportation except in their own ships, at their own price, and in such quantities as they thought proper. To counteract this, England gave a bounty on the importation of naval stores from North America, which secured the revenue at home, encouraged the clearing of land, and rendered England independent of foreign supplies. If we should again leave ourselves at the mercy of the Baltic nations, what is to prevent their playing the same game over again?

cept when specially agreed on to the contrary: the *minot* is an *eighth* larger than the Winchester bushel. The *Paris* foot is employed for all measures of land granted *previous* to the conquest, the English for all *since* that era. The arpent is for all other measures English, unless it may be otherwise agreed on.

In Upper Canada, the weights and measures are all English.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—Intimately connected with the commerce and prosperity of a country, is its monetary system, which I now proceed to describe.

Lower Canada.—Accounts are kept in Halifax currency, by which a guinea (weighing 5 dwts. and 6 grs.) is equal to 23s. 4d. currency; a sovereign to 22s. 3d.; a Joannes (a gold coin, weighing 18 dwts.) to 4l.; a moidore (weighing 6 dwts. and 18 grs.) to 2l.; and an eagle (weighing 11 dwts. and 6 grs.) to 50s. The *gold* Spanish and French coins, are a doubloon (17 dwts.) 3l. 14s. 6d.; 'Louis-d'or, coined before 1793 (5 dwts. 4 grs.) 1l. 2s. 8d.; the pistole, ditto (4 dwts. 4 grs.) 18s. 3d.; the forty franc piece, coined since 1792 (8 dwts. 6 grs.), 1l. 16s. 2d.; the twenty-franc piece (4 dwts. 3 grs.), 18s. 4d. In *silver* coins, the crown is equal to 5s. 6d.—Spanish and American dollar to 5s.; English shilling, 1s. 1d.; pistareen, 1d.; French crown, coined before 1793, 5s. 6d.; French piece of six francs, 5s. 6d., and so on. The coins in most general circulation are dollars of various denominations.

The metallic circulation may be estimated at about 250,000l. sterling; this sum is independent of a

balance of from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.* sterling in the military chest; and if it be true that many of the Canadians hoard their gold coins to a considerable extent, we may suppose that full half a million of gold and silver money exists in the province.

We come now to the paper circulation. There are no notes issued by the Government, or on the credit of the colony, nor have the government any shares in the private banks, which are three in number—viz. the Quebec, Montreal, and City banks, which are authorized by charter to issue notes from one dollar in value to any amount, payable on demand in specie, and subject to the proviso of having cash in their vaults to the extent of one-third of their circulation. A full account of each bank is required to be printed and laid before the Legislature annually. The Quebec Bank, as appears from a general statement of its affairs as they stood on the 17th January, 1834, had a capital stock paid in of 75,000*l.*; the notes in circulation, in value five dollars and upwards, amounted to 37,571*l.*; under five dollars, 9180*l.* Total, 46,752*l.* The nett profit in hand, was 9572*l.*; the balance due to other banks, 3432*l.*; cash deposited, not bearing interest, 44,930*l.* Total, 179,587*l.*¹.

The rates of the semi-annual dividend 3 per cent. declared in August, 1833, was 2250*l.*; and the amount of profits reserved, at the time of declaring such dividend, 6410*l.*

The shares of the Quebec bank are in number

¹ Shillings omitted, hence discrepancy in the totals.

3000, divided among seventy-six stockholders, who each hold a greater or lesser number of shares.

The state of the Montreal bank on the 18th January, 1834, was capital stock paid in, 250,000*l.*, bills in circulation, 190,297*l.*; nett profits on hand, 37,172*l.*; balances due to other banks for notes collected on their account, 16,960*l.*; amount of dividend owing to the stockholders, 592*l.*; balances due to foreign agents in exchange transactions, 6617*l.*; cash deposited, including all sums whatsoever, due from the bank, not bearing interest, its bills in circulation, profits, and balances owing to other banks and agents excepted, 184,882*l.*; drafts on the banks accepted by the cashier, outstanding, 100*l.* Total, 686,624*l.* Amount of last semi-annual division at 4 per cent. 10,000*l.*; amount of reserved profits at time of declaring the same, 29,676*l.*; amount of debts owing to the banks, secured by pledge of its stock, 1765*l.* Number of shares in the Montreal bank 5000, divided among 173 stockholders; the greater number being in small shares of from ten to fifty each. The actual circulation 1st December, 1832, of paper money—73,999 of one dollar, 48,711 of two D., 274 of four D., 172,517 *under* five D.; 53,370 of five D., 31,676 of 10 D., 1684 of 20 D., 2398 of 50 D., 1531 of 100 D.; 890,290 five D. *and upwards*. D. 1,062,807—265,701*l.* 15*s.*¹

City bank (Montreal), 31st May, 1837: Capital

¹ On the 1st June, 1837: Deposits, 234,776*l.*; bank notes in circulation, 180,692*l.*; notes discounted, 686,942*l.*; gold and silver coin, 68,811*l.*

stock paid in, 200,000*l.*; bills in circulation, 104,576*l.*; deposits, 24,594*l.*; notes discounted, 308,131*l.*; cash, 15,934*l.*; checks and notes of other banks, 15,081*l.*

Amount of debt owing to the bank, and secured by a pledge of its stock, 25*l.*; amount of debt unpaid and over due, 47*l.*

The cash which the City bank (a recent establishment) possessed in its vaults, in 1834, amounted to 15,244*l.*; Montreal bank, ditto, 73,860*l.*; and Quebec bank, 21,011*l.*;—making a total metallic money, belonging to private individuals, of 110,115*l.*

The paper currency in circulation in 1825 and in 1834 was—Quebec bank, 28,393*l.*, 46,752*l.*; Montreal ditto, 88,545*l.*, 190,297*l.*; Canada¹ (now City), 8432*l.*, 34,235*l.*: Total, 125,370*l.*, 271,284*l.*

It will be evident from the foregoing statement, that banking is on the increase in Lower Canada, and with it the commerce of the colony.

Upper Canada.—The monetary system is carried on by means of the incorporated banks, an insight into whose proceedings may be obtained from the following statements:—

General Statements of the Affairs of the Bank of Upper Canada, in 1836, furnished by order of the Honourable the Commons House of Assembly.

Capital stock paid in, 200,000*l.* Total amount of notes in circulation, not bearing interest, of the value of five dollars and upwards, and under five dollars, 220,023*l.* Bills and notes in circulation, bearing interest, none. Balance due to other banks, 157,755*l.* Cash deposited, bearing interest (its bills in circulation and balances due to other banks excepted), 8736*l.* Total, 616,285*l.*

¹ Discontinued.

Resources of the bank.—Gold, silver, and other coined metals in the vaults of the bank at Toronto, and at its agencies, 102,859*l*. Real estates and bank furniture, 8,858*l*. Bills of other banks, 16,092*l*. Balances due from other banks and foreign agents, in London and New York, on exchange transactions, 7,408*l*. Balances due by the agencies at this date, being money in transitu, 1,745*l*. Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stock and funded debts of every description, excepting the balances due from other banks, 479,321*l*. Total, 616,285*l*.

Statement of the Affairs of the Commercial Bank of the Midland District, on Thursday, 11th September, 1837.

Gold, silver, and copper in the vaults of the bank and its offices, 13,004*l*. Real estate, office, furniture, &c. 3,367*l*. Bills of other banks, 3,730*l*. Balance due from other banks and foreign agents, 21,379*l*. Amount of all debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, and all stock and funded debts, of every description, excepting the balance due from other banks, 332,420*l*. Total amount of the resources of the bank, 382,255*l*. Stock paid in, 198,332*l*. Amount of notes in circulation, not bearing interest, of five dollars and upwards, 65,381*l*. Under five dollars, 12,046*l*. Total, 77,427*l*. Bills and notes in circulation bearing interest, none. Balance due to other banks and foreign agents, 19,354*l*. Cash deposited, including all sums whatsoever due from the bank, not bearing interest, 73,171*l*. Cash deposited, bearing interest, 7,970*l*. Rate of dividend on the 1st December, 1834, four per cent. on capital, making 4,000*l*. Amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring the last dividend, 4,108*l*. Amount of debts due to the bank and not paid, being over due, 32,221*l*. Of which, the sum of 151*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*. is considered doubtful.

The money transactions with the agents of the Bank of Upper Canada are, relatively considered, very large; they amounted in one year to upwards of 1,000,000*l*. sterling, viz.—

Remittances to Thomas Wilson and Co., London,

from 1st January to 30th June, 1833, 100,808*l.* : from 1st January to 17th December, 1833, 118,007*l.* Total to London 218,815*l.* Remittances to Montreal Bank, same dates, first half-year, 267,095*l.* : second ditto, 332,707*l.* Total 599,802*l.* And the remittances to New York, for the same period, were, first half-year, 116,087*l.* ; second ditto, 116,900*l.*—Total 232,987*l.*—making a grand total of 1,051,604*l.* To carry on this extent of business very little cash is required—the principal circulation is paper notes and bills of exchange, and as is the case in every well-regulated community, a large amount of trade is carried on by means of credit. The following shews the number of shares subscribed, in the several districts of the province, on the New Stock of the Bank of Upper Canada in August, 1832 :—York, No. 10,039, 125,487*l.* ; Niagara, No. 6,841, 73,637*l.* ; Brockville, No. 2,824, 35,300*l.* ; Kingston, No. 2,136, 26,700*l.* ; Hamilton, No. 1,279, 15,987*l.* ; London, No. 1,020, 12,750*l.* ; Cobourg, No. 633, 7,912*l.* ; Cornwall, No. 560, 7,000*l.* ; Perth, No. 806, 10,975*l.* Amherstburg, No. 91, 1,137*l.* Total No. of shares, 25,679—total amount, 320,987*l.* The government hold 2,000 shares of the capital stock of the Bank of Upper Canada, to the amount of 25,000*l.* currency, the whole of which has been paid in. The liabilities of the bank are similar to those described under the head of Lower Canada. The rate and amount of the dividend on the 1st July, 1833, was four per cent. upon the capital paid in—making 5,239*l.* Amount of reserved profits, after declaring the same dividend, 6,661*l.* Amount of debts to the bank, and not paid,

being overdue, 23,075*l.* of which 572*l.* were considered doubtful or bad.

The following statement will convey a general view of the banks in Upper and Lower Canada. Since the first Edition of my "History of the Colonies," I suggested the formation of a Bank in London for the whole of our North American Colonies. The idea was at first considered preposterous; but I persevered, drew up a prospectus, and placed the management of the business in the hands of my patriotic friend, William Medley, Esq., of Lombard-street. His genius in banking (if I may use the term), after some consideration, saw the justice of my views; particularly when I explained the effect of identifying the pecuniary interests of the Colonies with those of the Mother Country, and the profits ultimately derivable by watching the exchanges at New York. Mr. Medley called a meeting of gentlemen at his office, laid my plan before them, and (thanks to his tact and perseverance) the *Bank of British North America* is now in a flourishing condition, with branches at Quebec, Montreal, Toronto, St. John's (N. B.), Halifax, and St. John's, Newfoundland. The secretaryship of the bank is confided to the able judgment of M. De Bosco Attwood; and in its transactions we have a better prospect of security for the allegiance of the North American Colonies than in any legislative enactment.

Banks in Upper and Lower Canada.

NAME OF BANK.	Capital paid up.	No. of Shares.	No. of Shareholders.	NOTES IN CIRCULATION.				Cash in hand.	Discounted and Loaned.	Date.
				5 dollars and upwards.	below 5 dollars.	Total.				
LOWER CANADA.										
Quebec.....	£. 75000	3000	76	£. 48080	£. 11804	£. 59384	£. 12844	£. 177677	Nov. 5, 1835.	
Montreal *	250000	5000	173	—	—	211457	95363	713000	Nov. 21, 1835.	
City Bank.....	200000	8000	—	—	—	107148	20623	327038	Dec. 1, 1835.	
Banque du Peuple	80000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
UPPER CANADA.										
Upper Canada.....	200000†	16000	—	180826	45828	226654	63796	413976	Nov. 16, 1836.	
Commercial	186450	7458	—	119873	55250	175123	46935	331709	Nov. 7, 1836.	
Government Bank.....	61000	—	—	1617	26295	27912	20832	68504	Nov. 28, 1836.	
Farmers' Do., Toronto }	No									
People's Do..... }	returns.									
Brit. Do., N. America†										

* Wished to increase its capital last year by £500,000, but, by the breaking up of the Legislature abruptly, were prevented: Government granted the old charter for a year.

† Two thousand Shares held by Government.

‡ No return yet made.

Every commercial man will be able to estimate the progress of the colony, from the foregoing trading and monetary details.

CHAPTER VII.

THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, MILITARY DEFENCE, AND FINANCES
OF THE CANADAS.

GOVERNMENT.—When Canada was in the possession of the French, the Government was a pure despotism. In 1774 the first British Act of Parliament was passed, fixing the boundaries of Canada—making provision for the better government of this part of Her Majesty's dominions, and vesting the authority in a Governor, aided by a council of not less than 17 persons, and not exceeding 23 in number, who had power to frame ordinances, but not to levy taxes, except for making public roads, and erecting a few local structures. By this Act the English criminal law was preserved; but it was enacted that 'in all matters of controversy, relative to property and civil rights, resort should be had to the rule and decision of the laws of Canada'—excepting however from this concession to French law, 'lands which had been or should be granted in free and common soccage.' The Roman Catholic religion, with all its immunities and rights, was secured to those of the Canadians who professed that faith.

After an interval of 17 years, this Act was followed by Mr. Pitt's, or rather Lord Grenville's Act, styled the Constitution of 1791, under the provisions of

which, Canada was divided into the upper and lower provinces.

Lower Canada received from this Act, a Constitution, consisting of a Governor, and Executive Council of 11 members, appointed by the Crown (similar to the Privy Council in England)—a *Legislative Council*, appointed by mandamus from the King, forming the second estate, and at that time consisting of 16 members, but since increased to 34, and a *Representative Assembly*, or third estate, composed of 50 members, and consisting of four citizens from each of the cities of Quebec and Montreal,—three burgesses (being two for the town of Three Rivers, and one for William Henry¹), and the remaining number divided over the province as knights of the shire, representing 20 counties, into which Lower Canada was divided. Population was partly made the basis for regulating the division : thus a small and thickly-peopled territory on the banks of the St. Lawrence was found sufficient to form a county, and in the more distant parts, large areas were included in one county, in order to obtain the amount of population necessary to a representative election.

The unequal manner in which this division into twenty-one counties operated, from its having regard to population and not to area, was felt after a few years ; and it was set aside by the Provincial Act of 9 Geo. IV., which subdivided Lower Canada into 40 counties.

¹ So called in honour of the visit of his late Majesty William IV.

The constitution of the Lower Province, as at present regulated ¹, may be thus summarily stated.

The authority of the Sovereign in Canada is limited by the laws of Great Britain, and by the capitulations of the province. The supreme *legislative authority* is in her Majesty and the two Houses of the Imperial Parliament: this authority is in like manner limited by the capitulations, and its own Acts; the most remarkable of which is the Act 18 Geo. III. cap. 12. confirmed by 31st Geo. III. cap. 13. which declares that ‘no taxes shall be imposed on the Colonies but for the regulation of trade, and that the proceeds of such taxes shall be applied to, and for the use of the province, in such manner as shall be directed by any law or laws which may be made by her Majesty, her heirs or successors, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council and Assembly of the Province ².’

The *Provincial Legislature* consists of her Majesty, acting by the Governor of the province;—of a legis-

¹ The conduct of the House of Assembly, and the rebellion, headed by its leaders, has subverted the constitution of Lower Canada; and the Earl of Durham has been appointed Governor-General, with a certain degree of arbitrary power for a definite period, until it be safe to frame a new constitution. However, let the recent form of Government stand as a record of the past history of the Province.—25th January, 1838.

² This is one of the main points in which a large portion of the Canadians are at issue with the home Government: the former desire to have an entire control over all sums of money raised within the province, and free from any interference on the part of the parent State. See large Edition of this Work, and “Colonial Policy of the British Empire,” part i. Government. Published by Allen and Co. in 1837.

lative council of 40 members¹, appointed by her Majesty for life; of a House of Assembly, of 88 members, elected for four years by her Majesty's subjects resident within the province, who possess in the counties property to the yearly value of 40s. ster.; in the towns to the yearly value of 5*l.* ster., or paying rent to the amount of 10*l.* ster. The constituency of Lower Canada is very widely diffused—among the half million of people there are at least 80,000 electors, of whom nine-tenths are proprietors of the soil; several counties have from 4 to 5,000 electors, all of whom are landed proprietors. The total number of proprietors of real property in 1831, was 57,891; and of persons holding property not otherwise than real, 25,208; of *families* employed in agriculture, 50,824; and of families engaged in commerce, only 2,503. The number of farm-servants employed was 7,602, which shows what a large proportion of the agriculturists are small farmers. The number of persons subsisting on alms, in a total population of upwards of half a million, was only 1282; and which, I suppose, included a large proportion of 408 deaf and dumb, 334 blind, and 924 insane persons.

No religious disabilities exist as to electors; but Clergymen or Jews are not eligible as representatives. The Assembly is empowered to make laws for 'the peace, welfare, and good of the government of the province, such laws not being *inconsistent* with the Act of 31 Geo. III. cap. 31.' The elections are con-

¹ The Chief Justice and Protestant Bishops are members.

ducted by open voting. The Members of the House of Assembly have, for the last three sessions, been allowed by grants of the Legislature, an indemnity of 10s. currency per diem, and 4s. per league as travelling expenses from their places of residence to Quebec, where the sittings of the Legislature are held. The session of the Parliament of Lower Canada generally lasts three months, seldom more than four, and is held during the winter. The salary of the Speaker of the House of Assembly is 900*l.*, voted annually by the Provisional Legislature.

The Governor, in her Majesty's name, assembles, prorogues, and dissolves the two Houses, which must be called together once in every twelve calendar months. All questions arising in either of the two houses, are decided by the majority of the members present by open voting. The Governor gives, withholds, and reserves for the further signification of her Majesty's pleasure, the royal sanction to Bills proposed by the two other branches. Laws assented to by the Governor, may be disallowed by her Majesty within two years. Her Majesty may not assent to any Act or Acts affecting the dues of the Clergy of the Church of Rome, or the Established Church of England within the province, or the provisions made for the same, or the enjoyment or exercise of any religious form or mode of worship, or creating penalties, burthens, disabilities, or disqualifications on that account, or granting, or imposing any new dues in favour of any ministers of any former mode of worship, or affecting the prerogative, touching the granting of the waste lands of the Crown, until such

Acts shall have been at least 30 days before both Houses of the British Parliament, without either of the Houses having addressed her Majesty, praying her not to sanction the same.

Upper Canada.—The Government has been administered since 1791 by a Lieutenant-Governor, Executive and Legislative Councils, and a House of Assembly or Representatives. The Executive Council consists of six members chosen by the Crown; and the Lieutenant-Governor, the presiding Councilor, is the Archdeacon of the Province.

The laws in force in *Lower Canada* are : 1st, The Acts of the British Parliament which extend to the colonies : 2nd, Capitulations and treaties : 3rd, The laws and customs of Canada, founded principally on the jurisprudence of the Parliament of Paris, as it stood in 1663, the edicts of the French kings, and their colonial authorities, and the Roman civil law : 4th, The Criminal law of England, as it stood in 1774, and as explained by subsequent statutes : 5th, The ordinances of the governor, and council, established by the Act of the above year : 6th, The Acts of the provincial legislature since 1792. These laws are executed in her Majesty's name, and in virtue of her commission and instructions, by the governor, or person administering the government, through the agency of a number of inferior officers, all of whom are appointed during pleasure. The governor besides possesses all other powers and prerogatives generally, which her Majesty may legally enjoy, and may delegate to him¹. The *judiciary* consists of a

¹ The governor of Lower Canada is Governor-General of all

High Court of Appeal, a Court of Queen's Bench, presided over by a Chief Justice of the province, and three Puisné Justices for the district of Quebec; another Court of Queen's Bench for Montreal, with a Chief Justice and three Puisné Justices: there are three provincial courts, with a judge for Three Rivers, and terms of the Court of Queen's Bench, including the Provincial Judge for trials of causes above 10*l.*, one for Gaspé, and one for the district of St. Francis.

There are also a court of Vice Admiralty, Quarter Sessions, and other minor tribunals for civil matters.

The Court of Appeal, the highest legal tribunal in the province, consists of the Governor, (*ex-officio* President,) the Lieutenant-Governor, Chief Justice of the province, the Chief Justice of Montreal, and the Members of the Executive Council, five of whom, including the President, are a competent quorum to hear and determine appeals from judgments pronounced in the Courts of Queen's Bench in civil matters. Should the matter in dispute exceed 500*l.* in value, an appeal lies to the Queen and Privy Council; if below that sum, the decision of the Canadian High Court of Appeal is final.

The Canadian Court of Queen's Bench combines a jurisdiction similar to those of the Queen's Bench and Common Pleas at Westminster; it has distinct civil and criminal terms, and an appellate as well as an

the British Colonies in North America, and Commander-in-Chief of all the forces in those provinces. I know not how far his power extends to Upper Canada, which has a Lieutenant-Governor.

original jurisdiction ; appeals lying, in certain cases, from the decisions of the Provincial Judges, or inferior courts, over each of which a Puisné Judge presides ; whose jurisdiction in the district of Three Rivers, is limited to 10*l.* sterling, (with the exception before explained,) in St. Francis to 20*l.*—but in Gaspé, by reason of its distance from the superior tribunals, it is extended to 100*l.*

The duties of the Vice Admiralty Court devolve, by commission, on a Judge Surrogate, who is also a Judge of the court of Queen's Bench ; this union is justly considered objectionable, as the Court of Queen's Bench possesses a controlling power over the Admiralty Court ; and, owing to the increasing commerce of Quebec, it is desirable that the Vice Admiralty Judge should be unconnected with any other office.

The Court of Escheats was created by the 10th sec. 6 Geo. II. ch. 59 ; it consists of Commissioners appointed by the Governor to inquire, on information being filed by the Attorney-General, into the liability of lands to be escheated, by reason of the non-performance of the conditions on which they were granted. The decision is by a verdict of a jury composed of twelve men, summoned in the usual way ; and the lands forfeited become revested in the Crown¹.

The other courts being similarly constituted to those of the same name in England, require no explanation. The police of the country is administered by unpaid justices of the peace, of whom there are

¹ This Court exists only in name ; as yet, I hear, it has done nothing.

110 in the Quebec district; 215 in the Montreal; 44 in Three Rivers, 23 in Gaspé, and 19 in St. Francis, exclusive of the members of the executive and legislative councils, the judges, &c. who are every where justices of the peace *ex-officio*. Trial by jury is universal in all criminal cases; but in civil matters, the appeal to this mode of trial is confined by statute to certain cases, viz., the demand must exceed 10*l.* sterling, the parties being merchants or traders, and the subject matter grounded on debts, promises, contracts, and agreements of a mercantile nature only; or else the action must arise from personal wrongs, to be compensated in damages: in all other cases the Bench are judges both upon the law and the fact,—a very small portion of these cases are tried by jury. Law proceedings are in French and English, and it is not unusual to have half the jury English and the other half French. Litigation is prevalent: there are about 200 lawyers on the rolls of the Courts of Queen's Bench, who are solicitors and proctors as well as barristers¹: the notaries, who are the conveyancers in the country, now form a distinct class, and are upwards of 300 in number.

Of the laws it may be said, that the criminal is English, with some provincial statutes engrafted on it not repugnant thereto; the admiralty is wholly English; the commercial laws of evidence are English.

¹ In the Quebec district there are 45 advocates, or barristers, 43 advocates, or solicitors, and 128 notaries. In Montreal district 26 *avocats*, 60 advocates, and 164 notaries; and Three Rivers, St. Francis, and Gaspé, 72, making a total of 538 lawyers!

Quebec and Montreal are corporate cities, having each a mayor and common council.

In *Upper Canada* the laws are wholly English, and administered by a Court of Queen's Bench, with two Puisné Judges, and 11 District Judges. There are courts of Quarter Sessions, Requests, &c. as in England, and there are about 500 unpaid magistrates.

LANDED TENURES.—Before closing this section, it will be necessary to advert to the peculiar state of the landed tenures in Lower Canada. When the country was first settled by the French, the feudal tenure was in full vigour on the continent of Europe, and naturally transplanted by the colonizers to the new world. The King of France, as feudal lord, granted to nobles and respectable families, or to officers of the army, large tracts of land, termed seigniories, the proprietors of which are termed seigniors; these possessions are held immediately from the King, *en fief*, or *en roture*, on condition of the proprietor rendering fealty and homage, on accession to seigniorial property; and in the event of a transfer, by sale, or gift, or otherwise, (except in hereditary succession,) the seignior was subject to the payment of a *quint*, or fifth part of the whole purchase money; and which, if paid by the purchaser immediately, entitled him to the *rabat*, or a reduction of two-thirds of the *quint*. This custom still prevails; the Queen of Great Britain having succeeded to the claims of the King of France.

Estimating the number of acres of land under cultivation in Lower Canada at 4,000,000, and the seigniorial grants of good and bad land, at 10,000,000

acres, it will be perceived that a large portion of territory is embraced under the seigniories. On this account it will be necessary to give some explanation of the different terms used in relation to this property.

Quints are a fifth part of the purchase money of an estate held *en fief*, which must be paid by the purchaser to the feudal lord, that is, the King. If the feudal lord believes the *fief* to be sold under value, he can take the estate to himself, by paying the purchaser the price he gave for it, together with all reasonable expenses¹. *Reliefe* is the rent or revenue of one year for mutation fine, when an estate is inherited only by collateral descent. *Lods et ventes* are fines of alienation of one-twelfth part of the purchase-money, paid to the seigneur by the purchaser, on the transfer of property in the same manner as *quints* are paid to the King on the mutation of *fief*; and are held *en rotture*, which is an estate to which heirs succeed equally. *Franc aleu noble* is a *fief*, or freehold estate, held subject to no seigniorial rights or duties, and acknowledging no lord but the King. The succession to *fiefs* is different from that of property held *en rotture* or by *villennage*. The eldest son, by right, takes the château, and the yard adjoining it; also an *arpent* of the garden joining the manor-house, and the mills, ovens, or presses, within the seigniority, belong to him; but the profit arising from these is to be divided among the other heirs. Females

¹ The Committee of the House of Commons, in their Report on the affairs of Canada, in 1828, recommended the Crown to relinquish the *quints*.

have no precedence of right, and when there are only daughters, the *fief* is equally divided among them. When there are only two sons, the eldest takes two-thirds of the lands, besides the château, mill, &c., and the younger one-third. When there are several sons, the elder claims half the lands, and the rest have the other half divided among them. *Censive* is an estate held in the feudal manner subject to the seigniorial fines or dues. All the Canadian *habitans*, small farmers, are *censitaires*. Property, according to the laws of Canada, is either *propre*, that is, held by descent, or *acquits*, which expresses being acquired by industry or other means. *Communauté du bien* is partnership in property by marriage; for the wife, by this law, becomes an equal partner in whatever the husband possessed before, and acquires after marriage, and the husband is placed in the same position in respect to the wife's dowry. This law might operate as well as most general laws do, if both *mari* and *femme* died on the same day; but very unhappy consequences have arisen when one has predeceased the other. For instance, when the wife dies before the husband, the children may claim half of the father's property, as heirs to the mother; and the mother's relations have often persuaded, and sometimes compelled them so to do¹.

¹ I am indebted to Colonel Bouchette and Mr. McGregor for many valuable remarks on this subject; the latter observes, that it would have been almost impossible to have formed a law more fruitful of family discord, or more destructive of that affection which ought to subsist between parents and children. So fully sensible, in fact, are the most simple *habitans* of the unhappy operation of this law, that scarcely any of them marry without an ante-nuptial contract, which bars the *communauté du bien*.

The *dot*, or dowry, is the property which the wife puts into the *communauté du bien*: moveable or immoveable property, falling to her by descent, is a *propre*, and does not merge in the *communauté*. Dower in Canada, is either customary or stipulate. The first consists of half the property which the husband was possessed of at the time of marriage, and half of all the property which he may inherit or acquire—of this the wife has the use for life, and the children may claim it at her death. If they be not of age, the wife's relations, as guardians of the children, can take it out of the father's hands, and may compel him to sell his property to make a division. Stipulated dower is a portion which the husband gives instead of the customary dower.

Those farmers who hold land from the seigneur *en roture*, and who are termed *tenanciers* or *censitaires*, are subject to certain conditions, viz. a small annual rent, from 2s. 6d. to 5s. (or perhaps more of late years) for each arpent in front¹; to this are added some articles of provision annually—such as a pig or goose, or a few fowls, or a bushel of wheat, according to the means of the farmer, who is also bound to grind his corn at the *moulin banal*, or the seigneur's mill, when one-fourteenth is taken for the lord's use, as *mouture* or payment for grinding. The *lods et ventes* form another part of the seigneur's

¹ The Canadian farms are remarkable for the small breadth of the farm on the bank of the river, and its great depth inland; the latter being often in proportion to the former as sixty to one; namely, half an arpent broad in front of the St. Lawrence, or other river, and 30 arpents in depth.

revenue: it consists of a right to one-twelfth part of the purchase-money of every estate within his seignior, that changes its owner by sale, or other means equivalent to sale: this twelfth to be paid by the purchaser, and is exclusive of the sum agreed on between the latter and the seller, and if promptly paid, a reduction of one-fourth is usually made, in the same manner as two-thirds of the *quints* due to the Crown are deducted on prompt payment. On such an occasion, a privilege remains with the seigneur, but is seldom exercised, called the *droit de retrait*, which confers the right of pre-emption at the highest price offered, within forty days after the sale has taken place.

All the fisheries within the seignories contribute also to the lord's income, as he receives a share of the fish caught, or an equivalent in money: the seigneur is also privileged to fell timber any where within his seignior, for the purpose of erecting mills, constructing new or repairing old roads, or for other works of public and general utility. In addition to the foregoing burdens on the farmer, he is, if a Roman Catholic, bound to pay to his curate one twenty-sixth part of all grain produced, and to have occasional assessments levied on him for building and repairing churches, parsonage houses, &c.

The duties of the seigneur to his tenants are also strictly defined,—he is bound in some instances to open roads to the remote parts of his fief, and to provide mills for the grinding of the feudal tenants' corn;—he cannot dispose by sale of forest lands, but is bound to concede them; and upon his refusal to

do so, the applicant may obtain from the Crown the concession he requires, under the usual seigniorial stipulations, in which case the rents and dues appertain to the King.

It will be perceived that the seigneurs of Lower Canada are the counterpart of those feudal barons so charmingly described by Sir Walter Scott, in various parts of his picturesque works; and notwithstanding the apparent disadvantages of the system, the *habitans*, as the French Canadians are termed, are strongly prepossessed in favour of its continuance, and averse to the free and common soccage tenure introduced about 30 years after the British conquest in 1759—since which time little or no land has been granted, subject to the seigniorial or feudal privileges just described, but all on free or common soccage terms. The soccage tenure, like *franc aleu roturier*¹, leaves the farmer or landholder wholly unshackled by any conditions whatsoever, as to rents, corvées, mutation fines, *banaleité* (corn grinding obligation), without, in fact, any other obligation than allegiance to the King, and obedience to the laws. The quantity of land thus granted in Lower Canada amounts to upwards of 7,000,000 acres—while under the seigniorial grants, there are nearly 11,000,000 acres held by a vast number of small proprietors.

From the earliest period, the Government were

¹ According to the *Coutume de Paris*, the 'Franc aleu roturier est terre sans justice ou seigneurie pour laquelle le detenteur ne doit cens, rentes, lods et ventes, ni autres redevances.'

desirous of converting the seigniorial into soccage tenures, but nothing compulsory has been attempted. In 1825, an act was passed (6th Geo. IV. c. lix.) for the gradual extinction of the feudal rights, and enabling seigneurs to release themselves from the feudal burthens (*quints*, &c.) due to the Crown, and for granting their lands in free and common soccage to tenants, who were also to be released from their feudal burthens; which act, while it provided for the voluntary surrender by the seigneur, of his rights, also gave the tenant in fief a right to claim exemption of burthens from the seigneur; who, on refusal, was subject to be impleaded in a court of law, and bound, on a commutation fixed and given, to grant his lands on soccage tenures. But this act has, with two exceptions, been of no effect; the Canadians are peculiarly attached to ancient customs,—they contend that a conversion of tenure is equivalent to a conversion of law, as the descent by inheritance would be altered, and with it the whole body of the law applicable to real property. It is, therefore, probable that the old tenures, *en roture*, will remain, and those in soccage are not likely to be converted into the former by the present generation.

MILITARY DEFENCE. — Lower Canada possesses an extensive militia, offering a most effectual means of organizing the numerical strength and physical energies of a people, to repel invasion or aggression. By means of a militia, such as that organized in Canada, and in several of our colonies, the higher and lower ranks of the community are brought into

immediate contact, the patriotic feelings of the one class act on the minds of the other, and a degree of order is the result, highly advantageous to the stability of the social fabric.

In 1807, the militia men bearing arms consisted of 50,000 able-bodied soldiers, with a due proportion of officers, who possessed as their own property, (*i. e.* independent of the arms furnished by government) 10,000 muskets. From this period to 1815, their numbers were little increased; but in the report of a Special Committee of the Assembly appointed in 1827 to inquire into the state of the militia, which is now before me, I find the following statement:—Quebec, 31,508; Three Rivers and St. Francis, 13,004; Gaspé, 1536; Montreal, 47,797; Total, 93,854. [*See large edition.*]

By the militia Act, every able-bodied male inhabitant, from 18 to 60 years of age, after six months' residence, is liable to serve in the militia, unless specially exempted by law; the exceptions embrace the clergy, civil and military officers of Her Majesty's Government, physicians, surgeons, schoolmasters, stewards of religious communities, students in colleges and seminaries, notaries, land surveyors, ferry-men, millers, &c. and persons who had served as officers of militia previous to the Act. The officers are appointed by the government; the qualification for those above the rank of captain being a *bona fide* possession of an estate yielding 50*l.* currency per annum; half the sum qualifies for a captain's or subaltern's commission. There is an annual muster by companies (29th June) throughout the province.

The light cavalry, artillery, and rifle corps, would do honour to any military power in Europe ; and there is an *esprit du corps* throughout the service, highly honourable to all the members of a force, which, with readiness, could turn out nearly 100,000 armed men to repel invasion, if the Americans should ever again feel disposed to attempt the conquest of Canada.

The Queen's troops in Lower Canada, generally amount to three regiments of infantry, two companies of foot artillery, and two companies of the royal engineers ; the head-quarters of two regiments are at Quebec, and of one at Montreal. The impregnable fortifications of Quebec I have already detailed ; the island of St. Helens, near Montreal, is also strongly defended, and there are some posts near the American frontier, on Lake Champlain. Quebec, however, is the key both to Lower and Upper Canada ; the command of that post is sufficient, without the occupation of minor fortresses. The Governor of Quebec garrison is a Major-General, and the Lieutenant-Governor holds the rank of Lieutenant-General. The head-quarters of the Commissariat, and other military departments, for Upper and Lower Canada, are in the Lower Province. The naval station of our North American colonies is Halifax, Nova Scotia.

The barracks at Quebec (formerly the Jesuits' College), which the troops at present occupy, are situate nearly in the centre of the Upper Town, forming the west side of the Market-square ; the building is of a quadrangular figure, of stone, three

stories high, with a large open space in the centre, and is capable of containing 1500 men. The armoury at Quebec is very extensive, and in excellent order: and the several departments of the army, medical, commissariat, &c. are well attended to. The following is a return of the British troops in the Canadas at intervals since 1816, including artillery and engineers:—

YEARS.	Colonels.	Lt.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Qr. Masters.	Surgeons.	Asst. Surgeons.	Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
January 25, 1816.	..	9	14	91	201	76	8	13	13	10	19	592	246	8205
1821.	..	5	8	41	65	34	5	5	4	3	7	174	101	2986
1827.	1	7	6	44	50	21	5	5	5	5	6	171	59	2855
January 1, 1833.	1	6	5	35	46	13	5	5	5	5	7	159	57	2551

The regular troops classified in the foregoing table, are dispersed throughout the Upper and Lower Provinces according to circumstances. In Upper Canada, there are 60 regiments of enrolled and embodied militia—with a Colonel, Lieutenant-Colonel, a Major, 10 Captains, 10 Lieutenants and 10 Ensigns to each regiment, the whole forming an available force of upwards of 50,000; as gallant soldiers as could be found in any part of Europe.

FINANCES.—*Lower Canada*.—The Canadians defray the whole expenses of the Civil Government: they are free from debt, are not heavily taxed, and have a large surplus revenue for public improvements. From 1815 to 1831 the House of Assembly in Lower Canada has caused half a million sterling

of the colonial revenue to be expended in making roads and canals. The income of the State is gradually on the increase, as the following statement satisfactorily demonstrates: 1821, 52,532*l.*; 1823, 133,333*l.*; 1825, 96,627*l.*; 1827, 95,980*l.*; 1828, 108,425*l.*; 1830, 213,295*l.*; 1831, 157,154*l.*; 1833, 200,000*l.*

The revenue of Lower Canada for the year ending 10th October, 1834, was 227,314*l.* currency, of which 30,000*l.* was paid to Upper Canada, being the proportion of the Custom duties which it is entitled to receive.

The largest portion of the revenue is derived from the Custom duties: the territorial and casual revenue being about 5000*l.* per annum: the duties on spirits and wines about 50,000*l.* The lightness of the Custom dues is shown by the following rate of taxation levied, viz.: on sugar, 1½*d.* per lb.; do. refined, 1*d.*; tea per lb., hyson, 6*d.*; bohea, 2*d.*; all other sorts, 4*d.*; coffee per lb. 2*d.*; wine, rum, brandy or Geneva, per gal. 6*d.*; whiskey, do. 3*d.*; tobacco, manufactured, per lb. 3*d.*; snuff, do. 4*d.*; Pimento do. 1½*d.*; cocoa, per cwt. 5*s.*; salt per pk. 2*d.*; and upon all other goods, wares, or merchandise (not included under the *free trade* goods or otherwise), 2½ per cent.

The following are the revenues at the disposal of the Crown in Lower Canada since 1828. [Report of Colonial Receipt and Expenditure, July 13, 1837.]

	Casual and Territorial Revenue.	Sales of land and Timber.	Duties and Licenses under Im- perial Act, 14 Geo. III. c. 88.	Duties and Licenses under Pro- vincial Act, 41 Geo. III.	Fines and for- feitures.	Total ¹ .
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1828	6578	2782	27649	3287	780	41078
1829	5318	2234	28116	2750	298	38717
1830	6322	2580	32979	4086	397	46365
1831	4581	3958	37402	4974	310	51228
1832	4977	5008	32531	5594	681	48793
1833	5664	3780	²	5330		14774
1834	5854	6517		5120		17492
1835	4407	³ 17396		5200		27004

In addition to the above revenues, the sum of 5000*l.* sterling per annum is permanently appropriated to the expenses of the administration of justice, under the Provincial Act, 53 Geo. III., c. 9.

EXPENDITURE.—The accounts which we have of the past are vague and imperfect; the total Civil expenditure of Lower Canada was in 1794, 23,768*l.*; 1799, 28,967*l.*; 1804, 39,364*l.*; 1809, 50,067*l.*; 1814, 186,106*l.*; 1816, 88,745*l.*, being at the average rate of upwards of 64,000*l.* per annum.

¹ Shillings and pence excluded in the totals.

² The duties under the Act, 14 Geo. III., c. 88, were surrendered to the control of the legislature, by the Act, 1 & 2 William IV., c. 23, under the promise of a Civil List being fixed by the Assembly; but this promise was never fulfilled.

³ In this sum is included a payment of 6000*l.*, by the British American Land Company, being their first annual instalment applicable to the general expenses of the Government.

I have no return from 1816 to 1821, when I find the following statement commencing with the latter year, and ending in 1831:—

Civil Expenditure. — 1821, 79,911*l.*; 1825, 64,194*l.*; 1828, 68,267*l.*; 1831, 174,799*l.*

Military do.—1821, 1,864*l.*; 1825, 1,848*l.*; 1828, 9,100*l.*; 1831, 1,974*l.*

Upper Canada.—The income of the Upper Province consists of one-third of the custom duties levied at Quebec and Montreal, together with the proceeds of a duty upon shop and tavern licences for vending of spirits, and those of distillers, hawkers, pedlars, and auctioneers, and a duty upon certain imports from the United States, paid by the importer. These form the public resources of the province, and are at the disposal of the Provincial Legislature, for the payment of public officers, and for such general purposes as may be deemed essential to the welfare of the people, and the interest of the province.

The following is the abstract for 1833, of the sums paid into the Receiver-General's office:—From Lower Canada, 41,416*l.*; ditto ditto difference between one-third and one-fourth, per award, 13,803*l.*; Bank Stock Dividend, 2,000*l.*; ditto Bonds, 1,500*l.*; Duties on Imports from United States, 5,580*l.*; Duties on ditto of Salt from ditto, 1,782*l.*; Hawkers and Pedlar's Licences, 393*l.*; Auction Duties, 511*l.*; Light House, York, 54*l.*; Shop, Tavern, and Still Licences, 5,905*l.*; Burlington Bay Tolls, 915*l.*; Ale and Beer Licences, 2*l.*; Interest on Loans, 371*l.*

It will be observed, that the largest part of the income of Upper Canada arises from the duties paid

in Lower Canada, at the ports of Montreal and Quebec; the internal revenue of the province consists of duties levied on spirits, both on the distillation and sale, on the importation of salt (six-pence per bushel) from the United States; on licences to auctioneers, innkeepers¹, pedlars, hawkers, &c.; and some tolls levied at the Burlington Bay Canal.

Tavern and Shopkeepers' Licences.—Persons keeping an inn or tavern must be licensed by the magistrates, and the licence costs 11*l.* 5*s.* per annum. The penalty for retailing without a licence is 20*l.* Shopkeepers can take out a licence, which costs 5*l.* 3*s.* for selling spirituous liquors, wines, &c., in quantities not less than one quart. The penalty for selling without a licence, or in quantities less than a quart, is 20*l.*

A revenue is also derived from the lands sold to the Upper Canada Company. The first instalment,

¹ There are 840 innkeepers, who pay each from 3*l.* to 10*l.*, the duty amounting to 3,643*l.*; and 443 shopkeepers, licensed to sell spirituous liquors, who contribute 1,505*l.*; the number of stills, in gallons measure, is 5,846, paying 730*l.*; and three steam-boats to pay 15*l.*, being a total currency on those four items of 5,394*l.*—gross, or deducting the allowance to inspectors, 565*l.*—4,829*l.* Salt, imported from the United States, yields 1,617*l.*: and the expense of collection is 382*l.*, leaving net 1,235*l.* The hawkers and pedlars on foot pay 5*l.* annually; and those who travel with one horse, 10*l.*; two horses, 15*l.*; the gross amount of revenue from this source is 520*l.*—(collector's allowance, 26*l.*); net, 494*l.*; levied on—41 *foot* pedlars, 30 one-horse pedlars, there being only one pedlar or hawker with two horses. The number of auctioneers is 23, who pay yearly 5*l.* for a licence, together with duty on sales; which, for 1832, amounted to 251*l.*

paid on the 29th July, 1827, amounted to 20,000*l.*; in 1833, 18,000*l.*; and in lieu of sundry fees, &c. 1,776*l.*; the total in seven years was 117,776*l.* In 1834, the amount payable by the Company was 19,500*l.*, and every subsequent year 20,000*l.*, until the whole sum of 348,680*l.* be paid in 1842.

POST-OFFICE¹. The post-office receipts for Upper and Lower Canada in 1831 were as follow: in Upper Canada, Letters, 9,870*l.*; Newspapers, &c. 790*l.* In Lower Canada, Letters, 10,494*l.*; Newspapers, &c. 566*l.*

The letter postage includes the British and sea postage, as well as the internal rates in the provinces.

The nett proceeds, after defraying the expenses of the establishment in the provinces, and the conveyance of the mails, &c., are remitted to the General Post Office, London.

The gross amount of Newspaper postage paid by printers or proprietors of newspapers in the Canadas, in 1831, was 1,022*l.*

THE LOCAL TAXES OR DISTRICT RATES are collected from each individual, at the rating of one penny in the pound, according to the quantity of land and other property he may possess, agreeably to the assessed value fixed by law, viz:—

Every acre of arable pasture or meadow land, 1*l.*; every acre of uncultivated land, 4*s.*; every town lot, 50*l.*

Every house built with timber squared or hewed on two sides, of one story, with not more than two fire places, 20*l.*; for every

¹ In 1837 there were 128 post-offices in Lower, and 152 do. in Upper Canada.

additional fire-place, 4*l*. Every house built of squared or flattened timber on two sides, of two stories, with not more than two fire-places, 30*l*.; for every additional fire-place, 8*l*. Every framed house under two stories in height, with not more than two fire-places, 35*l*.; for every additional fire-place, 5*l*. Every brick or stone house of one story, and not more than two fire-places, 40*l*.; every additional fire-place, 10*l*. Every framed brick or stone house of two stories, and not more than two fire-places, 60*l*.; for every additional fire-place, 10*l*. Every grist mill, wrought by water, with one pair of stones, 150*l*.; for every additional pair, 50*l*. Every merchant's shop, 200*l*. Every store-house, 200*l*. Every stone-horse, 199*l*. For every three-year-old and upwards, 8*l*. Oxen of the age of four years and upwards, 4*l*. Milch cows, 3*l*. Horned cattle, from two to four years and upwards, 4*l*. Every close carriage with four wheels, kept for pleasure, 100*l*. Every open carriage, or curricie, ditto, 25*l*. Every other carriage, or gig, with two wheels, ditto, 20*l*. Every waggon kept for pleasure, 15*l*. Every stove erected and used in a room, where there is no fire-place, is considered a fire-place.

HIGHWAY RATES.—Every person inserted on the assessment roll is, in proportion to the estimate of his property, held liable to work on the highways or roads in every year, as follows :—

If his property be rated at 25*l*., 2 days; do. 25*l*. to 50*l*., 3 days; do. 50*l*. to 75*l*., 4 days; do. 75*l*. to 100*l*., 5 days; do. 100*l*. to 150*l*., 6 days; do. 150*l*. to 200*l*., 7 days; do. 200*l*. to 250*l*., 8 days; do. 250*l*. to 300*l*., 9 days; do. 300*l*. to 350*l*., 10 days; do. 350*l*. to 400*l*., 11 days; do. 400*l*. to 500*l*., 12 days.

For every 100*l*. above 500*l*. to 1000*l*., one day; for every 200*l*. above 1000*l*. to 2000*l*., do.; for every 300*l*. above 2000*l*. to 3000*l*., do.; for every 500*l*. above 3500*l*., do.

Every person possessed of a waggon, cart, or team of horses, oxen, or beasts of burthen or draft used to draw the same, is held liable to work on the highways three days. Every male

inhabitant, from 21 to 50, not rated on the assessment roll, is compelled to work on the highways three days. Persons emigrating to this province, intending to become settlers, and not having been resident six months, are exempt; and all indigent persons, by reason of sickness, age, or numerous family, are exempt at the discretion of magistrates. Any person liable, may compound, if he thinks fit, by paying 5s. per day for each cart, &c., and 2s. 6d. for each day's duty; to be paid within ten days after demand made by an authorized surveyor, otherwise the magistrates can issue their distress for double the amount, with costs. Members of the House of Assembly for townships are paid 10s. per day during the sitting of the House, from an assessment upon the inhabitants, apportioned according to the foregoing scale. Members for towns are not paid. A police tax, of 100l. per annum, is raised from the inhabitants of York (Toronto), according to the same assessment scale.

EXPENDITURE.—A document prepared at the Colonial Office states, in pounds sterling, the gross expenditure and revenue of Upper Canada, for 1831, thus :—Revenue, 102,289l.; Civil Expenditure, 98,928l.; Military, 2,007l.; Total, 101,035l.

For the year 1833, the Expenditure was: Civil List estimate, 9,379l.; for Officers of the Legislature, 890l.; Contingencies of the Legislature, 5,000l.; Permanent Salaries, 7,223l.; Arrears of 1832, 4,929l.; Common School Appropriations, 2,900l.; District Schools, 1,100l.; Militia Pensions, 1,000l.; Adjutant-General's Establishment, 650l.; Inspector-General's ditto, 778l.; Agricultural Societies, 600l.; six Pensioners, 120l.; Clerk in Chancery, 75l.; Lighthouses, 760l.; Harbour at Kettle Creek, 1,500l.; Kingston Hospital erection, 2,000l.; Redemption of Debentures, 18,890l.; and Interest on Public Debt, 8,303l.—Total, 66,500l.

As considerable interest is felt, respecting the debt which Upper Canada is incurring for public works, I subjoin the following detail, as printed in the proceedings of the House of Assembly in 1833. The total amount outstanding of debentures in provincial currency is 138,833*l.*, at an interest of five and seven-eighths per cent. per annum; 52,666*l.* in debentures, bearing six per cent., have been redeemed—namely, 25,000*l.* for the Militia; 16,000*l.* for the Public Service in 1824; 3,000*l.* of the Burlington Canal; and 8,666*l.* of the Welland Canal. Of the debentures outstanding, the several amounts are: Burlington Canal, 5,000*l.*; Welland ditto, 16,334*l.*; Burlington ditto, 4,500*l.*; Welland ditto, 50,000*l.*; Kettle Creek Harbour, 3,000*l.*; Welland Canal, 25,000*l.*; Burlington ditto, 5,000*l.*; Oakville Harbour (loan to Mr. Chisholm), 2,500*l.*; Roads and Bridges, 20,000*l.*; Kettle Creek Harbour, 2,500*l.*; Port Hope Harbour, 2,000*l.*; and Coburg Harbour Loan, 3,000*l.*—Total, 191,500*l.* The interest is paid half-yearly, as the debentures fall due, and their amount varies from 25*l.* to 100*l.*

In 1833 the Provincial Legislature authorized the borrowing of money by debentures, to the extent of 70,000*l.*, to be applied to the improvement of the St. Lawrence, but only to bear 5 per cent. interest, and not the usual interest of 6 per cent.; the consequence was, that the loan could not be raised in either of the Canadas, or in the United States. Mr. Dunn, the Receiver-General, was sent to England, and subsequently authorized to negotiate a loan with the house of Thomas Wilson and Co. to the amount

of 200,000*l.*, paying interest 5 per cent. in London, or 6 per cent. in Canada, for the purpose of redeeming the debentures that have been issued from year to year for the Welland Canal, &c., as stated above. The legislature of Upper Canada has also sanctioned the borrowing of 350,000*l.* for making the St. Lawrence navigable for ships, from Montreal into Lake Ontario; of 50,000*l.* to pay the debts due by the Welland Canal, and to keep it in repair; and of 45,000*l.* for making roads and bridges in the province: these sums, together with the existing debt of 258,138*l.*, will make the whole (including minor items) upwards of 800,000*l.*

I have been rather minute in the foregoing details, in order that intending emigrants may see the state of the finances of the country in which they are about to settle.

Expenditure incurred by Great Britain.—The largest item is for the troops, which amounted in 1832, according to the document printed by the House of Commons in 1834, to 208,248*l.* for both provinces. The details are given in the large edition of this work, and in my “Colonial Policy.” An annual sum is voted, in the British Parliamentary Estimates, for the Indians, which is thus divided between Upper and Lower Canada:—Lower Canada, in the year ending 31st March, 1835, obtained 1,813*l.*, which was distributed as follows: to the secretary, 239*l.*; superintendants, 239*l.*; interpreter, Quebec, 107*l.*; do. do., 102*l.*; missionary, 75*l.*; do. do., 50*l.*; schoolmaster, 20*l.*; a superintendant at Montreal, 231*l.*; three interpreters, 102*l.* each; a resident,

131*l.*; two missionaries, 50*l.* each; and one at 45*l.* There is a nearly similar establishment for Upper Canada, of which the salaries are 1,757*l.*; and the pensions for wounds and long services, 572*l.* The total expense of Indian presents, stores, &c. for the year ending April, 1835, is 15,856*l.*; making a grand total, in the miscellaneous British Parliamentary estimates, of 20,000*l.*

There is also voted in the British Parliamentary estimates for the year ending March, 1836, a sum of 6,540*l.* for the Clergy of North America, of which the Protestant Bishop receives 3,000*l.* per annum; the Roman Catholic Bishop, 1,000*l.*; the Archdeacon of Quebec, 500*l.*; the Rector of Do., 400*l.*; and the remainder is divided between ten Protestant clergymen, of whom three are Presbyterians. The expense of the water communication in Canada, as defrayed by Great Britain, is thus shewn:—

An estimate of the sum that will be required between the 1st April, 1835, and 31st March, 1836, on account of the Canal Communications in Canada, 34,511*l.*

The amount required to defray the expenditure up to the period of completing the works of both lines of canal, 1,045,126*l.* The amount required on account of compensations to individuals, for losses sustained and lands taken, according to the best estimates that can now be formed, 23,900*l.* The amount expended in maintaining and repairing the canals, up to September, 1834, 19,911*l.* The amount estimated to be necessary on this account, during the years 1835-6, 8,365*l.* Total, 1,097,302*l.* Towards

which there has already been granted :—On account of the works of the canal, 1,032,765*l.* On account of the maintenance and repair, 18,800*l.* And the produce of the tolls and rents to September, 1834, has been, 7,826*l.* Estimated produce for 1835, at the rate, 3,400*l.* Total, 1,062,791*l.* Amount required, 34,511*l.*

The whole revenue raised in the Upper and Lower Provinces may be estimated in round numbers, and on an average at 300,000*l.*, and as the population is about 900,000, the taxation is not 7*s.* 6*d.* per head per annum. The charge on Great Britain is now not much more than 200,000*l.* per annum—so that the whole expenditure for nearly a million of people is but half a million a year, or 10*s.* per head. This shews the lightness of the public burthens in Canada.

CHAPTER VIII.

RELIGION—EDUCATION AND THE PRESS—SOCIAL STATE—
EMIGRATION—WAGES, &c.

THE prevailing form of Religion in Lower Canada is the Roman Catholic, the clergy of which are educated in Canada, and have no civil or secular connexion with the Pope; they are not paid by government, but have for their support the twenty-sixth part of all the grain raised on the lands of the Catholics¹. Hay and potatoes are exempted from the charge, and if a Catholic turn Protestant, or sell his lands to a Protestant, the estate is no longer subject to this moderate burden. The Church is governed by a Bishop (a Canadian born and educated), who receives, in addition to the rent of some lands of little value, a stipend of 1000*l.* per annum from Great Britain. The incomes of the *Curés* average 300*l.* per annum, by which they are enabled to live respectably, and even to practise hospitality; and so long as they confine themselves to their religious duties, they invariably meet with all the respect which piety and philanthropy so well deserve. In Canada, Upper and Lower, as well as in our other colonies, great atten-

¹ At a sale of some of the Clergy reserves in 1835, in the Gore district, the lands sold at 15*s.* to 18*s.* per acre.

tion is paid to the observances of religion by people of every persuasion, more than I believe to be the case in the mother country.

The bishop, or primate, has two coadjutors or titular bishops, and four vicars general, and there are upwards of two hundred vicaires, curés, &c. Several religious communities exist, viz. the *Hôtel Dieu de Montreal*, founded in 1664, and containing 37 *religieuses professes*; the *Congregation de Nôtre Dame à Montreal* (in 1650), with 81 *professes*; the *Hôpital-general de Montreal* (1753), with 29 *professes*; the *Hôtel Dieu de Quebec* (founded in 1637, “pour les pauvres Malades”), with 34 *religieuses professes*; the *Ursulines de Quebec*, with 56 *professes*; the *Hôpital-general de Quebec* (1693), with 50 *professes*; and the *Ursulines des trois rivières* (founded in 1677, “pour l’instruction et pour les pauvres Malades”), with 34 *professes*: all these establishments have *novices* and *postulants*. The nunneries of Lower Canada are stated to be generally exemplary as to their management, and the piety and charity of their inmates.

The number of Curés in Canada is said to be 209, whose salaries average from 200*l.* to 300*l.* per annum, and with abundance of every thing.

The church of England establishment consists of a Bishop (of Quebec) and 40 clergymen. The Presbyterian clergymen of the Church of Scotland are about 14 in number, and there are 12 Wesleyan ministers.

The ecclesiastical charges, voted in the last parliamentary estimates, will be found under the head of Finance.

The number of Churches in Lower Canada is about 30. *One-seventh* of the whole of the lands in the townships is set apart for the Protestant church.

In *Upper Canada* the prevailing form of religion is that of the Established church, which is under the superintendence of the Bishop of Quebec, whose subordinates are the Archdeacons of Toronto and Kingston, and about 40 clergymen,—the number of Protestant churches in the province being about 50. It is calculated that the area of Upper Canada is 31,000,000 acres, of which 26,000,000 are capable of cultivation,—one-seventh of which, or 3,700,000, are set apart for the maintenance of a Protestant clergy—that is, 18,000 reserved lots of 200 acres each. Archdeacon Strachan says, that this is not an extravagant provision, for judging from what takes place in the United States, each lot will not produce in *a century*, 20*l.* per annum, making a total of 376,000*l.*, which, divided among 2000 clergymen (a very small number for a country as large as England), gives only 188*l.* per annum to each minister¹.

Independently of a clergyman of the Established Church to each parish, there are ministers of several other persuasions. Of the Presbyterian Church, in connexion with the Church of Scotland, there are

¹ The lands held by the late order of Jesuits in Lower Canada, prior to its occupation by the British, were—By the Bishop and Seminary of Quebec, acres, 693,324; Quebec Ursulines, 164,615; Hôtel Dieu of Quebec, 14,112; Sœurs Grises, 42,336; Ursulines of Three Rivers, 38,009; General Hospital, Montreal, 404; St. Sulpicius, do., 250,191: by the Jesuits, 891,845; by the Recollets, 945; General Hôpital, Quebec, 73:—Total, 2,096,754.

in Upper Canada, 21 ministers and preachers;—of the United Synod of Upper Canada, 20; of the Roman Catholic Clergy, 20; namely, one bishop and 19 priests, with 35 chapels built and building. The bishop receives 500*l.* per annum from Government, and the clergy 1000*l.* a-year divided among them as a Government appropriation. The Methodist Episcopal Church consists of 18,451 members; in York there are 250 members divided into 14 classes. The British Wesleyan Mission have three preachers; The Primitive Methodists (whose doctrines are the same as the Wesleyans, from whom they differ in some points of church government, their district and annual conferences being composed of two parts laymen, and one part travelling preachers, for the purpose of preserving a just equipoise of power, and uniting all the intelligence and experience of their society in their church government) have five travelling and 14 local preachers, 250 members, and 14 district congregations¹. Of the Baptists, there are about 40 or 50 churches in Upper Canada, and as many ordained ministers, besides 35 ordained preachers or licentiates.

According to a recent Parliamentary Return, the 40 working clergy of the Established Church, among

¹ Recent accounts from Kingston state, that the long-contemplated union, between the British Methodists and their more numerous Episcopalian brethren, has been accomplished. Episcopacy is to be renounced, and a president to be sent out annually from the British Conference, with power to direct the affairs of the Canadian Conference; the vacancies that may occur to be filled up indiscriminately by the British and Canadian Conferences.

the stations of Upper Canada, have stipends of from 50*l.* to 130*l.* each, the majority being 100*l.*, payable out of funds raised in the province; the 23 working clergy of the Romish Church have salaries averaging 50*l.* each, and of the Church of Scotland there are 15 clergy with salaries of about 60*l.* each, all paid out of funds raised in the province of Upper Canada: the Archdeacons of York and Kingston have 300*l.* each; the Prelate of the Romish Church, styled Bishop of Regiopolis, stationed at York, has a salary of 500*l.* The total clerical charges on the colonial revenue of Upper Canada for 1832 were—for the Church of England, 4,430*l.*; Romish Church, 1500*l.*; Scotch Church, 1120*l.*; Presbytery Synod of Upper Canada for salaries to ministers, 700*l.*; Roman Catholics, 900*l.*; British Wesleyan Methodists, 900*l.*; Canadian Methodists, 600*l.*;—Total, 10,150*l.*

EDUCATION, I am happy to say, is making rapid progress in both provinces¹: the following is a recent General Statement of Education in the Province of Lower Canada, made from the Returns transmitted to the House of Assembly by the Visitors, named in virtue of the Act 1st William IV. chap. 7.

¹ Although the children of the *Habitans* are being educated, it does not follow as a matter of course that the *Habitans* themselves can read or write.

COUNTIES.	No. of Schools.	In ordinary attendance at School.	Paying 5s. to 7s. 6d. per Month.			No. of Teachers.		Population of each County.	Proportion of Inhab. in each School Dist.	One child, &c.*
			Boys.	Girls.	Free.	Males.	Females.			
Bonaventure.....	7	203			73	5	2	8309	235	40
Gaspé	4					4		5003	298	—
Rimouski.....	18	664	137	73	565	15	4	10061	303	15
Kamouraska.....	39	1231	118	99	1058	21	17	14557	428	12
L'Islet.....	27	994	206	195	760	18	9	13518	540	13
Bellechasse.....	54	1642	95	123	1535	28	26	13529	276	8
Dorchester... ..	27	802	134	97	635	15	12	11946	398	15
Beauce.....	22	542	26	62	445	12	10	11900	177	22
Megantic.....	4	104	8	8	94	4		2283	134	22
Lotbiniere	58	1667	122	95	1450	36	21	9191	191	5
Nicolet.....	27	1091	313	140	811	16	12	12504	227	11
Yamaska.....	18	664	62	16	626	10	8	9499	316	14
Drummond.....	10	342	21	29	282	8	2	3566	178	10
Sherbrooke	50	1270					49	7104	95	5
Stanstead	69	1976					69	10306	166	5
Missiskoui.....	56	1241	458	630	139	10	46	8801	191	7
Shefford.....	26	595	187	216	138	2	24	5087	212	8
Richelieu	17	723	148	96	478	10	7	16149	538	19
Bourg de Sorel...	4	116	60	8	166	3	2			
St. Hyacinthe ...	34	1336	473	302	847	21	13	15369	495	11
Rouville.....	46	1766	422	367	1555	22	24	18115	463	10
Vercheres	13	600	127	81	249	9	4	12319	615	20
Chambly	22	844	174	107	348	18	5	15483	496	18
Laprairie.	28	971	276	234	482	23	8	18497	616	19
L'Acadie... ..	31	1154	231	188	790	18	13	11419	431	10
Beauharnois	41	1514	501	436	342	33	7	16859	330	11
Vaudreuil	12	260	119	89	120	11	1	13111	599	50
Outaouais	9	241	90	96		6	3	4786	252	20
Deux Montagnes	37	1332	300	225	640	27	11	20905	486	15
Terrebonne	15	900	160	140	600	10	5	15623	831	18
Lachenaie	18	650	153	112	321	13	5	9461	450	14
L'Assomption ...	27	889	165	141	591	14	13	12767	354	14
Montreal, Cité....	54	3840	1245	1743	1097	42	56	27297		6
Do. Comté.....	21	701	142	147	666	14	7	16476		23
Berthier.....	37	1332	306	225	643	27	11	20225	412	15
St. Maurice	49	1763	363	463	1073	29	23	16909	466	10
Champlain.....	27	826	25	11	824	12	15	6991	249	8
Portneuf.....	54	1726	180	146	1430	35	19	12350	280	7
Quebec, Cité.....	49	3413	1018	1556	975	38	50	27562		8
Do. Comté.....	19	623	126	131	592	13	6	8611	539	13
Montmorency ...	23	773	153	97	754	13	10	3743	220	5
Saguenay	4	237	46	39	129	4	2	8385	399	35
Orleans	9	241	115	38	212	4	4	4349	434	18
	1216	43799	9015	9001	23805	670	635	511919		

* One child attends school to the undermentioned proportion of population.—(Heading of the last column.)

The foregoing table speaks volumes in favour of the British Government in Canada ; a committee of the House of Assembly thus reports on the subject :

‘ In 1830, there were 981 schools ; in 1831, 1216 ; teachers in 1830, 947 ; in 1831, 1305 ; scholars in 1830, 41,791 ; in 1831, 45,203 ¹.

‘ The number of scholars taught gratuitously has increased from 21,622 to 23,805. Those who pay, from 16,591 to 18,016.

‘ The whole amount of expenses for elementary schools, paid out of the public chest, in 1830, was about 20,000*l.* ; in 1831, it will be about 26,000, giving an average for each scholar, in 1830, of 10*s.* 4*d.* ; in 1831, of 11*s.* 2*d.*

‘ The proportion which the number of children, receiving elementary instruction, bears to the whole population, is about one in twelve throughout the province, instead of one in four, the proportion in the adjoining state of New York. The counties of Montmorency, Stanstead, Sherbrooke, and Lotbiniere, are the only counties out of 41 where nearly all the children, of a fit age to attend school, are receiving a school education. In some counties only one child in 12, and one in 10, are at school. The average throughout the province of the children at school is one out of three.’

The money paid towards public schools by the House of Assembly was, in 1829—6439*l.* ; 1830—18,088*l.* ; 1831—17,317*l.* ; 1832—23,324*l.* ; making in four years 65,168*l.* sterling, or 72,409*l.* currency, distributed through upwards of 2000 schools annually.

The lands granted to the Jesuits by the French Government, and which fell into the Crown on the

¹ In 1829 the total number of children reported as receiving elementary education was only 18,410, of which 3675 were under the Royal Institution.

demise of the last of the Jesuits in 1800, have been granted by the government for purposes of education. Under a very bad system of management, however, these lands did not yield 50,000*l.* from 1800 to 1831.

Some alterations have been recently made for the purpose of distributing the elementary schools more equally over the province. The number of school districts, in 1833, was :—

Bonaventure, 22; Gaspé, 14; Rimouski, 35; Kamouraska, 34; L'Islet, 25; Bellechasse, 49; Dorchester, 37; Beauce, 67; Megantic, 17; Lotbiniere, 41; Nicolet, 41; Yamaska, 27; Drummond, 10; Sherbrooke, 51; Stanstead, 62; Missiskoui, 48; Shefford, 25; Richelieu, 29; St. Hyacinthe, 31; Rouville, 47; Vercheres, 17; Chambly, 35; Laprairie, 34; L'Acadie, 30; Beauharnois, 59; Vaudreuil, 24; Ottawa, 19; T. Mountains, 49; Terrebonne, 23; Lachesnaye, 21; L'Assomption, 36; Montreal, 18; Berthier, 48; St. Maurice, 36; Champlain, 27; Portneuf, 45; Quebec, 23; Montmorency, 19; Saguenay, 19; Orleans, 10.—Total, 1295 school districts.

For the higher branches of education there are various establishments; such as the Seminary of St. Sulpice, at Montreal; the New French College, at Montreal; M'Gill College, English, at the same place.

There are French colleges, also, at Quebec, Chambly, Nicolet, and St. Hyacinthe; and there are many high class public and private schools.

In several of the colleges there are professorships of divinity, medicine, anatomy, philosophy, mathematics, &c., and the chairs are all ably filled.

There are not such complete statistics showing the state of education in Upper Canada, as in the Lower Province, although upwards of half a million acres of land have been reserved for promoting public instruction, of which 225,944 have been reinvested in the Crown, in lieu of scattered reserves granted as an endowment to King's College; 66,000 acres have been set apart for the benefit of Upper Canada College, and 258,330 disposable acres for the extension of education. The legislature also grants from 4000*l.* to 8000*l.* per annum ¹.

The annual charges for the Upper Canada College for 1832, were—Principal, 600*l.*; Vice-Principal, 400*l.*; Mathematical Master, 300*l.*; two Classical do. 300*l.* each; French Master, 200*l.*; Drawing do. 200*l.*; Writing and Cyphering, do. 150*l.*; Preparatory Master, 150*l.*—Total, 2,600*l.* There are upwards of 100 scholars in the respective forms of the College. The terms at the Upper Canada College are 30*l.* currency per annum for board and tuition, with some extra college dues. At the York National Central School, which gave instruction, in the year ending April 1833, to 402 boys and 235 girls, the terms for instruction to those who are unable to pay the higher terms, is one dollar per quarter; and no family is required to pay for more than two children, how many soever there be.

¹ There is also the University of King's College now forming.

The scholars at public or free schools, in which an academical education is given, are stated to have been in 1832 thus distributed :—

<i>Situation of</i>			<i>Situation of</i>		
<i>District.</i>	<i>School.</i>	<i>Scholars.</i>	<i>District.</i>	<i>School.</i>	<i>Scholars.</i>
Eastern	Cornwall	40	Home	York	0
Ottawa	Hawkesbury ..	30	Gore	Hamilton....	40
Bathurst	Perth	30	Niagara ..	Niagara	26
Johnstown....	Brockville ..	35	London ..	London	40
Midland.....	Kingston	46	Western ..	Sandwich....	30
Newcastle	Cobourgh....	25			

In the common schools, there are 18,000 children, of both sexes, receiving education.

THE PRESS.—This novel and extraordinary element of civilization, and adjunct of national, as well as protector of individual liberty, is making rapid progress in Canada; where the journals are unstamped, the paper without an exciseable duty, and the advertisements exempt from tax. I have no separate return of the increase of the press in each province: but in both together, the number of newspapers was, in 1827, 17; in 1828, 20; in 1829, 27; in 1830, 30; and in 1831, 37. This information is derived from Parliamentary Papers. I think I may add that the present number is about 50; namely, 20 for Lower and 30 for Upper Canada.

Newspapers published in Montreal, and their Politics¹:—

1. *Montreal Herald* and *Daily Commercial Gazette*, published daily. (Tory.) 2. *Montreal Herald*, for

¹ Of course these details are subject to continual fluctuations, but the difference yearly is of no general importance.

the country, twice a week. (do.) 3. *New Montreal Gazette*, weekly. (do.) These three newspapers issue from the same press.—4. *Montreal Daily Advertiser*, daily. (Neutral.) 5. The *Courier*, three times a week. (Tory.) 6. The *Weekly Abstract*, from the *Daily Advertiser*. The three latter newspapers issue from the same press. The *Courier* is for country circulation; and the *Weekly Abstract* being filled chiefly with the commercial information of the week, is filed by the merchants, and sent to Europe to their correspondents.—7. The *Morning Sun*, daily; containing advertisements only. 8. The *Montreal Gazette*, three times a week. (Tory.) The oldest of the Montreal newspapers, and supposed to be the greatest in point of circulation.—9. The *Settler*, twice a week. (Tory.) 10. The *Vindicator*, twice a week. (Whig.) The foregoing eight newspapers are all in English.—11. *L'Ami du Peuple*, in French, twice a week. (Tory.) 12. *La Minerve*, in French, twice a week. (Whig.)

Published in Quebec :

13. *Quebec Gazette*, by authority, once a week. (Neutral.) 14. *Nelson's Quebec Gazette*, daily. (Tory.) 15. *Quebec Mercury*, three times a week. (Tory.) 16. *Le Canadien*, three times a week. (Whig.) The *Gazette* is in English and French. *Nelson's Gazette* is three days of the week in English, and the other three days in French. The *Mercury* is in English, and *Le Canadien* in French.

In the country :

17. The *Farmer's Advocate*, or *Township Gazette*, published at Sherbrooke, in the Eastern Townships,

in English, weekly. (Tory.) There were two other newspapers published in the Townships, the *St. Francis Courier* and *Colonist*: it is said that they were lately discontinued.—18. *L'Echo du Pays*, published at St. Charles, on the Richelieu, in French, weekly. (Whig.) 19. A new "Penny Magazine," printed in French, entitled *L'Abeille Canadienne*, is announced for publication; to be devoted to the interests of the people, but excluding politics.

The newspapers just enumerated are all conducted with ability; but, as may naturally be expected, with a good deal of party violence; the *Whigs* (4) supporting the House of Assembly, the *Tories* (10) the Government and Legislative Council¹. They are also abundantly supplied with advertisements; and as commercial speculations, independent of their value as political engines to either party, are found worthy the attention of capitalists. There are not at present, I believe, any monthly or quarterly journals².

The fine arts are making no inconsiderable progress³; the Montreal Museum of Natural History, is increasing rapidly; and the Quebec Literary and Historical Society, is rising into notice; hopes are entertained, that when the existence of these institutions is more generally known in England, books,

¹ This calculation was made two years ago.

² I do not know whether the "Montreal Museum," a monthly journal devoted to literature, be in existence this year. The published proceedings of the Historical Society of Quebec, not being periodical, are not taken into account.

³ A concert was given during the present year, at Quebec, which would have been considered highly creditable in Paris.

tracts and manuscripts, &c. will be sent to them gratuitously from the mother country. There are several public libraries; one in Quebec contains upwards of 6,000 volumes of standard and valuable works, and the Montreal public library is fast overtaking its elder brother of Quebec. The Mechanics' Institution, school societies, agricultural associations, &c. all indicate the rapid progress of mind in Lower Canada.

In Upper Canada the press is also unstamped, paper unexcised, and advertisements free from tax; the consequence is, a rapid increase of this necessary element of civilization. There are thirty newspapers in the province; which have been thus classified on the occasion of Mr. Hume's recent letter; eighteen support the existing state of things; twelve oppose it. Three fully approved of Mr. Hume's letter, viz: the *Correspondent*, *Advocate*, and *Reformer*;—three partly approved of it, viz: the *Brockville Recorder*, *Spectator* (Kingston), and *St. Thomas Liberal*. Six Whig papers were opposed to it, viz: the *Hamilton Free Press*, *British Whig* (Kingston), *British American Journal* (St. Catharines), *Niagara Reporter*, *Christian Guardian*, and *Granville Gazette* (Prescott);—as were also the following Tory papers¹:—*Sandwich Emigrant*, *St. Thomas Journal*, *London Free Patriot*, *Western Mercury*, *Dundas Post*, *Niagara Gleaner*, *Canadian Wesleyan*, *Canadian Freeman*, *Patriot*, *Port Hope Wonder*, *Coburg Star*, *Belleville Standard*, *Hallowell Free Press*, *Kingston Chronicle*,

¹ Several ultra journals on the liberal (so called) side have ceased, and been replaced by conservatives.

Kingston Herald, *Cornwall Observer*, and *Upper Canada Courier*; one is omitted in the Canadian analysis; it is supposed the *Toronto Recorder*, a new Journal¹.

Another analysis states that ten Journals are Whig; four ultra Tory; ten moderate Tory; two Orange, or of doubtful character; one Literary, and one Official. The circulation of the Whigs is the greatest, but their advertising patronage not equal to that of the Tories. The Newspapers published in Toronto in 1834, were the *Christian Guardian*, *Colonial Advocate*, *Canadian Correspondent*, *Patriot*, *Upper Canada Gazette*, *Courier*, and *Canadian Freeman*. There is also a Canadian Magazine; an Almanac or two; and Annual Records, &c.

In the capital there are an Agricultural Society, a Mechanics' Institute, a Medico-Chirurgical Society,

¹ A late number of the *Canadian Courier* says: within the last ten or twelve days we have received a copy of the first number of no less than four new papers which have been established in different parts of the province, viz.—The *Brockville Gazette*, well edited, and a little ultra tory in its politics; it has for its motto the following quotation from Bolingbroke: "Those who are preparing to build up a Government, should recollect that the Kingly power ought to form the basis, and the popular the superstructure; for, if you place a republic as the basis, and afterwards build a monarchy upon it, your building will fall into ruins on the slightest shock." The *Phœnix*, at Belville. The *Hamilton Free Press*, edited with spirit and ability. The *London Sun* is published in the new Town of London, in the township of London, county of Middlesex, and district of London. It is very gratifying to observe these new sources of intelligence opening to the public in the different sections of this thriving colony.

Literary and Philosophical do.; Savings' Banks; various Hospitals and charitable institutions, and Schools; Temperance and Bible Societies, &c.

SOCIAL STATE.—The facts developed in the preceding pages, amply demonstrate the progress which the Canadas have made in all the elements of social wealth; indeed in no country, ancient or modern, have there been such rapid strides in civilization, as Upper Canada in particular has made; the progressive state of which may be estimated by the inland navigation now in full activity on Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Kingston.

I may here add, that there is a daily steam-packet between Montreal and Quebec (180 miles), the usual fares for which were 20s. cabin, and 5s. steerage; but opposition has reduced the latter to 1s. From the number of steam-boats building, in every direction, and from the circumstance of the engines being now made at home, instead of in the mother country, we may expect yet greater facilities for travelling and communication in Upper Canada. In 1834 there were 11 steam-boats plying between Montreal and Quebec, and during the season they made 710 trips.

The stage and steam-boat line from Montreal to Prescott is the property of a joint stock company, under the title of "The Canada Steam-boat and Mail-coach Company."

The number of horses on the line considerably exceeds a hundred, and the coaches are of sufficient number, at each station, to accommodate a large number of passengers.

The steamer Henry Brougham is on Lake St. Louis.

The Brockville new steamer, built at the flourishing town whose name she bears, is one of the most beautiful models,—length, 144 feet; breadth of beam, 22 feet 10 inches; breadth on deck, 45 feet; and depth of the hold, 7 feet 6 inches in the clear. The promenade deck is 110 feet in length. She plies on Lake Ontario.

The Iroquois was the first boat that attempted to ascend the powerful rapids between the head of the Long Sault and Prescott. The engine of the Iroquois is on the horizontal principle, with a large wheel in the stern; her rudder is also on a novel plan, adapted to the navigation in which she is employed.

Galoup Rapid, and the Rapid Plat, can now be ascended with ease,—a part of the St. Lawrence proverbial for the extraordinary rapidity of its currents, and the romantic beauty of the surrounding scenery.

The United Kingdom is one of 120-horse power, high pressure. She leaves Prescott every Monday afternoon, touching at Kingston, Toronto, and arriving at Niagara every Wednesday evening.

The Cobourg is 152 feet in length on deck; 36 feet in breadth of beam; 11 feet in hold; and 418 tons burthen, by admeasurement. She is propelled by two low-pressure 50-horse power engines. She leaves Prescott on her upward trip (on the arrival of Wednesday's stages from Montreal) every Thursday evening, arriving at Niagara on Sunday. She leaves

that place on her downward trip every Monday afternoon, touching at Toronto, &c.

Steam-packets are constantly running between Prescott, York, and Niagara, and schooners every week to Rochester, Kingston, Hamilton, and every other direction.

The increased intercourse between Upper and Lower Canada may be judged of from the rapid growth of Prescott, on the St. Lawrence, in the route from Montreal to Kingston, and distant from the former 127 miles, and from the latter 62 miles. In 1815, the largest vessel employed for the transit of merchandise, between Kingston and Prescott, was one solitary schooner of only 40 tons burden. In 1833, there were 14 steam-boats, of different sizes, from 30 to 500 tons; and 50 schooners, from 40 to 150 tons. These are employed between Prescott and the ports on Lake Ontario, besides a number from Lake Erie, whose tonnages we could not ascertain¹. The register tonnages of the steam-boats and schooners amount to 5,647 tons! This speaks volumes in behalf of the resources of the upper province, as well as of the industrious and enterprising spirit of its inhabitants. The number of buildings in Prescott, in 1815, was barely eight houses; in 1833, its number nearly 300; all excellent buildings, some of which are not surpassed in size and elegance by any in the province. Its population in 1815, did not exceed 50. In 1833, it numbered full 1,400. Such is the rapid progress of agricultural improvement in Upper Ca-

¹ Last year there were two steam-boats started on the Otonabee river, and one on Lake Simcoe.

nada, that she can supply from her own internal resources her whole population with every kind of food, while the export of her raw and manufactured materials pays for all foreign luxuries, and leaves a balance in her favour. Her exports of wheat last year were 69,948 bushels; and of wheat flour 48,809 barrels. This year (1835) her exports will nearly double that of last year—these are cheering prospects. Although the yearly increase of her population, by immigration and otherwise, has, for some years past, been great, yet it has not kept pace with the increase of her trade. Since 1825 the forwarding business at Prescott has more than doubled every three years: this year it will double that of last year. From these facts we should infer that the population must be in prospering circumstances. In 1815 the entire population of the upper province did not exceed 40,000 souls: in 1833, it exceeded 300,000¹; having thus, in 18 years, increased more than seven-fold. In 1824 the duties received at the ports of Chippewa, Fort Erie, were 60%, in 1835, 1068%. In 1815 the business was little more than nominal; at present, it almost exceeds belief: Were we asked to explain this, we would state, it is to be attributed to the inexhaustible resources of the country, and enterprising habits of the people, who are deep and shrewd calculators, fond of enterprise, persevering, and determined in their dispositions and habits.

¹ A farm within the limits of the corporation (Hamilton), was lately sold for 22,500 dollars! the same about six years ago being purchased for 1,500 dollars. It is to be laid out in building lots.

A gentleman writing from Chatham, on the Thames, in July last, says:—"We have now in progress a rail-road between this town to London, thence to Hamilton, on the head waters of Lake Ontario, which will connect Lakes Huron, St. Clair, Erie, and Ontario; and from the work already performed, I doubt not it will be quite equal to the far-famed Manchester rail-road. Ten years since, not a white inhabitant was within 20 miles of this town; we have now upwards of 18,000 active and industrious inhabitants in this township, with four mills, six pair of French bur stones, two breweries, many saw-mills, &c. We have ten steam-boats, some of them upwards of 700 tons, plying between this and Lakes Michigan, Detroit, Goderich, Sandwich, Chippawa, Buffalo, &c., with one of the most productive soils in the world, that will yield 18 to 20 barrels of the finest white wheat per acre, without any manure, from 10 to 15 years to come. All British persons are entitled to 200 acres of land, at 15s. per acre—payment to be completed in 10 years. I would recommend all persons to come out whose property is dwindled at home." The writer proceeds to say:—"Settlers must work hard themselves, at the same time they should recollect it is on their own estates they are working, and that they have *no rent, tithes, taxes, &c.* to pay, except 6*d.* per acre per year, the government tax for making roads, bridges, &c. after the land has been reclaimed seven years. In this township we have two large Protestant churches, four Methodist meeting-houses, two Presbyterian, and two Quaker meeting-houses, a Roman Catholic chapel,

three endowed schools, two newspapers (published three times a week), a ladies' boarding-school, an excellent commercial and classical academy; an agricultural society has also been established here; all creeds live here on very friendly terms, and much united,—endeavour to forward each other's views and interest by mutual good offices." There is no exaggeration in the foregoing picture: it is a noble proof of what Britons can accomplish.

An American journalist of the present year, speaking of the United States' portion of Lake Erie, says, that the first vessel navigating its waters, under the American flag, was in 1796, which was a schooner of 70 tons burthen. Up to 1810 there were not more than four or five other vessels of a similar size. 'Now,' says an American writer, 'Lake Erie appears like a frequented track in the highway of commercial nations. Its waters are navigated by 60 steam-boats (exclusive of other American steam-boats connected with them, and running on the Detroit river and Lake Michigan), and 150 sloops and schooners. The shipping on this lake has increased, in the three last years, from 6 to 18,000 tons. The tonnage entering the port of Buffalo ¹ last year, was more than 200,000;

¹ Buffalo is on the American shore of Lake Erie at its S.E. extremity, where the Niagara river commences to connect Erie and Ontario. The ever speculating Americans project cutting a ship canal to connect these lakes, thus opening up the whole commerce of the Ohio territory (which is connected with Lake Ontario by a canal, 397 miles, commenced in 1825, and completed in seven years, at a cost of £2,000,000 sterling!), to New York, and thus avoiding the tedious and dangerous navigation of the Mississippi, Gulf of Mexico, and the Atlantic. A

and 100,000 passengers are estimated to have left it for the west. Previous to opening the canals last season, the tolls were reduced 28 1·2 per cent. on most of the products of the country, and 14 1·4 per cent. on merchandize. Notwithstanding this reduction, the amount of tolls received on the Erie and Champlain canals during the last season, is 1,464,059 dol. 99 cents, which is 234,776 dol. 51 cents more than the receipts of the preceding year.'

On the whole, Upper Canada holds out an eligible situation for emigrants of the higher class, and abundance of employment for those of the labouring community. To the former I should observe, that no person (except United Englishmen, Loyalists¹, or those entitled by existing regulations to the Government free grants) can obtain any of the waste Crown Lands otherwise than by purchase : the sales take place under the direction of a Commissioner on the first and third Tuesday of every month in the different districts. The lands are put up at an upset price, of which notice is given at the time of advertising the sale, and the conditions are one-fourth of the purchase-money paid down—the remainder in three equal annual instalments, with interest at 6 per cent. payable on and with each instalment : when this

shrewd American merchant says, that unless the Yankees open a steam-boat communication between New York and the great lakes, their whole commerce from Superior downwards will centre in Montreal.

¹ On the separation of the United States from Great Britain, those who preserved their allegiance to the British Crown and fled to Canada, were entitled to 200 acres of land each, by Act of Parliament.

is completed a patent for the lands is issued free of charge. The clergy reserves are sold on these terms—10 per cent. payable at the time, and the remainder in nine annual instalments of 2 per cent. each, with interest. There are occasional sales of town lots, &c. The general size of a township is 69,000 acres—12 miles by nine, say with nine lines of nine miles each, (called concession lines), 400 rods apart, upon each of which a narrow line is reserved for a road: there are also two cross or check lines, each at right angles to the concession lines, and three miles apart, upon which the corners of the lots are marked, 80 rods apart; thus 400 rods deep, with 80 rods front, gives 200 acres to each lot, with a road in the front and rear of the farm.

It is difficult to ascertain the quantity of lands settled or ungranted in the province. In 1830, according to a document in the Surveyor-General's Office, the surveyed townships appeared thus:—

Granted prior to 1804, 4,500,000; ditto since 1804, 3,800,000; to be settled by Colonel Talbot, 302,420; total granted, 8,602,426 acres. Remaining ungranted, 1,537,439 acres; Crown and Clergy reserves two-sevenths, 4,142,750; total, 5,680,189 acres.

Although a great part of the Crown reserves have been sold to the Upper Canada Company¹, and a very valuable part of them given to the University, it is estimated that there are still upwards of 5,000,000 acres of good land open for settlement with-

¹ I am gratified in being enabled to state that this Company (to which Upper Canada owes so much) is thriving rapidly and doing much good.

out going north of the back line where 7 or 8,000,000 acres of excellent soil may yet be found. Exclusive of the lots remaining ungranted in the surveyed townships before mentioned, the rough estimate by Mr. Richards, the Commissioner of Land, at present available in round numbers is :—

In townships not surveyed from Luther to Zero, 730,000 acres : in the Newcastle district and joining the Home ditto, 550,000 ; in the western ditto, west of the Upper Canada Company, 350,000 ; in the London ditto, north of ditto, 340,000 ; in ditto, not yet purchased from the Chippewa Indians, 2,500,000 acres ; total, 4,470,000 acres.

It must be self-evident, that for years to come, Upper Canada can find room for an immense population ; its fertile soil, the productive nature of the fine climate, extensive water communication, and beautiful scenery, peculiarly fit it for the reception of British emigrants.

Lower Canada has certainly not kept pace in its advancement and prosperity with the Upper province : this may be accounted for partly by the disposition of the Canadians of French descent, and partly by the nature of the landed tenures along the St. Lawrence. It must, however, be admitted, that the political disputes in the Lower province have tended much to unsettle men's minds, and to prevent emigrants of respectability from settling in the Colony : I trust that the disputes between the French and English party are drawing to a close ; the main object of the former is, that the Legislative Council should be an elective chamber, chosen by a higher

class of electors than those who exercise the franchise for returning members to the House of Assembly; and, secondly, that all the revenues raised within the province should be at the disposal of the representatives of those from whom it is levied. I offer here no opinion on either of those points, they are fully treated of in my *Colonial Policy* ¹.

EMIGRATION TO THE CANADAS.—The tide of emigration has for some time been setting towards the North American continent, as shown by the following returns:—

Emigrants to the British N. American Colonies and to the U. States.

Where to.	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830
N. American Colonies ...	8741	12818	12648	12084	13307	30574
United States	5551	7063	14526	12817	15678	24887
Total	14292	19881	27174	24901	28985	55461
	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836
N. American Colonies ...	58067	66339	28808	40060	15573	34226
United States	23418	32872	29109	33074	26720	37774
Total	81485	99211	57917	73134	42293	72000

Of the foregoing, a large number in the first line were for Upper and Lower Canada, and many who shipped themselves for New York did so for cheap conveyance, and on account of the winter season; they afterwards passed over into Canada. The number of emigrants proceeding to Canada the first year

¹ Published by Allen and Co. in 1837.

after the peace, was about 1,250; from that period the number has gradually increased, and the following shews the number who arrived in Quebec from 1819 to 1834:—

1819, 12,907; 1820, 11,239; 1821, 8,050; 1822, 10,468; 1823, 10,258; 1824, 6,515; 1825, 9,097; 1826, 10,731; 1827, 16,862; 1828, 11,697; 1829, 13,356; 1830, 24,391; 1831, 49,250; 1832, 51,422; 1833, 21,752; 1834, 30,933; 1835, 12,527; 1836, 27,772—shewing a total in 18 years of 339,227 persons.

The Emigrants arriving at Quebec and Montreal were from—

	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836
England ...	3565	6799	10343	7481	5198	6799	3067	12188
Ireland.....	9614	18300	34133	28204	12013	19206	7108	12590
Scotland ...	2643	2450	5236	5500	4196	4591	2127	2224
Total ...	15882	27549	49812	51185	21407	30596	12302	37002

The emigrants had, it was estimated, with them, in 1832, specie to the amount of 700,000*l.* sterling.

In conclusion, I may observe, that the father of a large family, or the young man without occupation at home, has, in the Canadas, ample scope for employment; and I trust that no mistaken views of expected commercial advantages may prematurely force those fine agricultural colonies into manufacturing communities, but that they become the granary of England, and continue as heretofore an invaluable addition to the British maritime empire.

These details show the extent to which emigration has been carried, and the rate at which it still pro-

ceeds ; whether an island like England is weakened by it, or one like Ireland, with a more dense population than China¹, the reader will find discussed in my *Colonial Policy*. I proceed next to show the rates of wages and provisions, in order that those who are determined on emigrating may judge for themselves.

WAGES AND PRICES OF PROVISIONS.

The rate of wages at Kingston, Upper Canada, during the whole of 1833, was—for masons, 7*s.* 6*d.* ; carpenters and joiners, 6*s.* 6*d.* ; labourers, 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* ; plastering, including materials, three coat work, 1*s.* 8*d.* per yard ; building, per toise, 12*s.* 6*d.* of 72 solid feet, for labour only ; no walls taken at less than two feet thick. The prices of country produce in the market at Toronto, on the morning of Wednesday, the 9th July, 1834, were :—

Firewood, cord, 11*s.* 3*d.* a 12*s.* 6*d.* ; beef, lb. 3½*d.* a 4*d.* ; eggs, doz. 7*d.* ; cheese, 6*d.* a 7½*d.* ; butter, lb. 7*d.* a 7½*d.* ; oats, bushel, 1*s.* a 1*s.* 3*d.* ; barley, do. 3*s.* 1½*d.* ; wheat, 60 lbs. 3*s.* 9*d.* a 3*s.* 10*d.* ; flour, fine, barrel, 18*s.* 9*d.* a 20*s.*—Montreal, July 5. 1834.

¹ China, with 352,866,012 mouths, on an area of 1,225,823 square miles, has 288 mouths to each square mile : Ireland with 8,000,000 mouths, on an area of 27,000 square miles, has almost 300 mouths to the square mile ! England has 250 mouths to the square mile : Wales, 110 : Scotland, 80 mouths to the square mile ; the average for the United Kingdom being 220 mouths to each square mile. Nations, like bees, should send out their annual swarms, in order to make room for new generations ; but they should be sent to the least populous parts of the empire, and not to *foreign* nations, where they may hereafter become enemies of the parent state.

The following is an average of the prices of provisions in Lower Canada :

	January.	March.	May.	July.	September.	November.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Wheat, bls.	5 3	5 1	5 4	5 3	5 1	5 6
Maize, do.	3 10	3 3	3 2	3 3	3 3	3 1
Oats, do.	2 4	2 6	2 3	3 2	2 8	2 6
Barley, do.	3 6	3 8	3 10	3 10	3 10	3 10
Potatoes, do.	2 0	2 6	2 6	2 6	2 6	2 6
Butter, fresh, lb. ...	1 3	1 3	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 3
Do. salt, do.	0 11	0 11	0 11	0 9	0 9	0 11
Cheese, lb.	0 5	0 6	0 5	0 5	0 5	0 6
Hay, 100 bundles ...	40 0	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	45 0
Straw, do.	12 6	12 6	15 0	15 0	15 0	12 6
Bread, 4 lb. loaf.....	0 7	0 7	0 7	0 7	0 7	0 7
Meat, stone.....	3 6	3 6	4 6	4 0	3 6	3 8
Beef, lb.	0 3	0 3½	0 4	0 4	0 3½	0 3
Mutton, do.....	0 4	0 4½	0 5	0 5	0 4½	0 4
Pork, do.	0 5	0 5	0 4½	0 4½	0 4	0 5
Veal, do.	0 6	0 6	0 5	0 4½	0 4½	0 6
Flour, 100 lbs.	15 0	16 0	14 9	14 0	14 0	14 6
Fine do.	14 6	15 0	13 0	13 6	13 9	14 0
Seconds, do. do. ...	13 0	13 6	12 10	12 0	12 6	12 10

Prices at Montreal in 1834.]—Ashes, pot, per cwt. 22s. 6d. a 23s.; pearl do. 23s. 6d. a 24s.; pork, mess, per barrel, 30s.; prime mess, do. 42s. 6d.; prime, 55s. 3d.; lard, lb. 5½d. a 6d.; butter, salt, lb. 6d. a 7d.; flour, superfine, per barrel, Canada, 26s. 6d. a 27s.; fine do. 25s.; middling do. 17s. 6d. a 18s.; tobacco, U. C. leaf, per lb. 5½ a 6d.; rum, Jamaica, per gall. 4s. 3d.; whiskey, Montreal, 1 to 2, 3s. 6d. a 3s. 9d.; tea, twankey, per lb. 2s. 10½d.; hyson skin, 2s. 7½d. a 2s. 9d.; hyson do. 4s. 4½d. a 4s. 6d.; coffee, per lb. 10d. a 11d.; sugar, Barbadoes, per cwt. 40s. a 42s. 6d.; iron, English, per cwt. 12s.; Swedes, do. 20s.; Russia, do. 22s. 10d. a 25s.; salt, Liverpool, per bushel, 1s. 3d. a 1s. 6d.

In Upper Canada, the wages of labour are more likely to continue high than in Lower Canada, except in the eastern townships.

The wages at the Royal Engineer Office, Quebec.

Class per day in Cur.					Pay.	Class per day in Cur.					Pay.				
1831.					1832.	1831.					1832.				
<u>s. d.</u>					<u>s. d.</u>	<u>s. d.</u>					<u>s. d.</u>				
Masons	1	.	6	0	.	6	0	Carpenters	1	.	4	6	.	5	0
	2	.	5	6	.	5	6		2	.	4	0	.	4	6
	3	.	5	0	.	5	0		3	.	3	6	.	4	0
	4	.	4	6	.	4	6	Smiths	1	.	4	6	.	4	6
	5	.	4	0	.	4	0		2	.	4	0	.	4	0
	6	.	3	6	.	3	6		3	.	3	6	.	3	6
Labourers, 1 class, 2s. 6d.															
<u>2</u>						<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>								
<u>3</u>						<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>								

Labourers at the Cove, 3s. 6d. per day; better informed class, 5s.; boom men, 5s.; broad-axe do. 5s. to 7s. 6d.; narrow do. 4s. 6d. to 5s.; sawyers, 6s. 6d.; labourers on board ships, 3s. 6d. to 5s. per day, and found in the best of every thing. The same rate of wages, with occasional variations, still exists.

These statements will enable a man, who has no other wealth than his labour, or his skill as a tradesman, to estimate his value in Canada; where there is still room for a population of many millions. The emigrant, who has a little capital with which to commence farming, may judge of the soil, from the following specimen of American farming, opposite the Canadian territory, according to a statement just received from the United States. Ten acres of orchard ground produced 25 tons of hay; 26 acres of maize, 1580 bushels; 4 acres of wheat, 140; 1 acre of flax, 600; 8 acres of oats, 560; 1 acre of barley, 60; 2 acres of potatoes, 1000: 2 acres of vegetables, fattened 400 chickens. Much of the industry of the American farming is exercised in rearing cattle, hogs, and poultry, for the market of the towns. The hogs are fed chiefly on Indian corn, and the plenty of that kind of grain often makes it be given to them, when

they might be fattened on much cheaper stuff. The rearing and feeding of cattle is carried on very systematically, and to a great extent; there being drovers, as in this country, who purchase the beasts from the farmers, and often drive them as far as 600 miles to be sold. New York consumes about 700 oxen per week, weighing on an average 55 stone, of 14lbs. each. Canada presents many other features deserving of the attention of the intending emigrant, and which a man of shrewd mind may gather from the foregoing statements.

The following is the comparative statement of Arrivals, Tonnage, and Emigrants at the port of Quebec, taken from the Exchange Books, to the last day of the under-mentioned years :—

Date.	Ves-sels.	Tonnage	Emi-grants.	Date.	Ves-sels.	Tonnage	Emi-grants.
1819	613	155518	12907	1830	855	225138	24391
1820	576	148138	11239	1831	1009	259878	49250
1821	418	100640	8050	1832	961	248038	51422
1822	586	146188	10468	1833	1007	271147	22062
1823	542	131862	10258	1834	1122	315867	30217
1824	603	148581	6515	1835	1132	323305	11580
1825	762	191614	9079				

The following is also the comparative statement of the number of Vessels, their Crews and Tonnage, and the number of Emigrants that have reached Montreal during the past four years :—

Date.	Ves-sels.	Men.	Tonnage.	Pas-sengers.
1832	117	1457	27713	2714
1833	137	1562	30864	2046
1834	89	1043	20105	1512
1835	109	1165	22729	1205

Fifty-three of the whole number were from England, and 25 from Scotland. Of the 109 vessels arrived in 1835, all were loaded but two.

CONCLUSION.

THE preceding pages will, it is to be hoped, convey an accurate idea of the Canadas to the general reader, and enable him to estimate in some degree the progress and civilization of this highly important section of the British Empire ; those who seek further details, as contained in elaborate statistical tables, will find abundant materials in the large Edition of my work.

In the present edition, I have not entered into any disquisition respecting the political disputes now unhappily prevailing in Lower Canada ¹,—but it may be necessary for the general reader to know, that two parties exist in the Province,—the one calling itself the French party, consisting of the descendants of the original French or Acadian Settlers,—the other being British and Irish emigrants and their descendants. It is difficult to estimate the numerical strength of these parties ;—those of French origin are stated by M. Papineau (who is the Speaker of the House of Assembly and their leader) at 525,000, while the British are reckoned at about 75,000. This, however, is incorrect ; the latter are estimated by their party at 150,000 ; so far as to their numbers : with regard to their intelligence, wealth, and station in society, there is less difficulty in forming a judgment ; the British and Irish comprise according to the state-

¹ This was written in January, 1836. I adhere to my intention of avoiding in this work political discussions. In my "*Colonial Policy*," (Government), I have explained the nature of the claims put forth by the House of Assembly in Lower Canada.—R. M. M. February, 1838.

ment of the "Constitutional Association of Quebec," nearly all the merchants, the principal Members of the learned professions, a large body of skilful and wealthy artizans, mechanics, and a great number of respectable and industrious agriculturists, possessing extensive real estate, and holding by far the greatest portion of the capital employed in the pursuits of trade and industry.

The party, however, who by reason of the extended elective franchise return the greatest number of deputies to the House of Assembly, are the *habitans* or farmers of the province,—men of estimable character, simple habits, and but little experienced in political matters; they are consequently too liable to be influenced by designing individuals, who may wish to make a trade of agitation, and turn it to their personal interest and pecuniary advantage. Such men avail themselves of the existence of every grievance, however slight, which they magnify to the greatest possible extent, and fan by unceasing efforts the smallest excitement into a flame. The Government, on the other hand, have until recently done little or nothing to meet the coming storm; abuses of various kinds were permitted, pluralities of places sanctioned, and frauds left unpunished. The result has been, that a few men affectedly imbued with philanthropic views have sown the seeds of dissension in the colony, and are now reaping an abundant harvest. National prejudices have been appealed to by the leaders of the *habitans*—the British and Irish Colonists have been denounced as *foreigners*, monopolists, and despots, and discord with

its fell brand has lit a torch which time and judicious measures can alone extinguish. The House of Assembly demanded an unconditional control over the Crown (and other) revenues ; this demand should have been met with calmness, and acceded to, on the granting of a proper Civil list, whereby the chief officers of the Government,—the Judges, &c. should have been rendered independent of the annual vote of the House of Assembly. But no tact or discretion was used, the revenues were surrendered before a civil list was granted ; the promises of the Assembly were violated, and the Colonial officers would have gone without their salaries but for the loan of a sum of money from the Military or Commissariat Chest, whence the troops are paid by Great Britain. The Government have now conceded what ought never to have been refused—namely the abolition of pluralities in the public offices,—the removal of political judges—and the settlement of the revenue and civil list ; but a new demand was made by the leaders of the French party ; who, conscious that the Legislative Council, so long as it was elected by the Crown, was a bar to their proceedings, became anxious to make it *elective* by the people as in the United States. It is not within my province here to discuss this question ; the full examination of so momentous a topic belongs to my *Colonial Policy*¹ ; but I would earnestly entreat all classes in the province to moderate their political animosities, to reflect that by making the Colony a hot-bed for strife, they are not merely

See Part I. on Government, published by Allen & Co. in 1837.

poisoning the sources of individual happiness, but essentially retarding the progressive improvement of their country. Every thing that is desirable for the welfare of the Settlement is attainable by mildness and calm remonstrance; and while on the one hand I would counsel the Government at home and at Quebec, to grant with a good grace, and in time, every liberal measure consistent with the wants and wishes of the people and the due prerogative of the Crown,—so on the other I would earnestly recommend the so called French party not to make demands which a little reflection will teach them England cannot at present grant, and even if she could, it is more than doubtful whether an *elective* Legislative Assembly would under present circumstances be adapted to the happiness of the colony.

By loyalty—by obedience to the laws—and by social concord, Canada will make more rapid strides in wealth and strength than she has even yet accomplished; and when the Canadians reflect that there are things dearer to mankind than riches or political power, they will not, I trust, rashly fling away the substance, by grasping at the shadow; they will remember that the neighbouring republic, with 2,000,000 African slaves within its territory, and a host of minor differences, now requires the utmost exertion to preserve its territorial integrity; and that sooner or later the present United States will be divided into a number of petty oligarchical republics, or consolidated in an empire, with a single despot swaying the destinies of millions. In fine, Canada has every thing to lose, and nothing to gain by revo-

lutionary proceedings; and I fervently hope the day is far distant, when its innocent, brave, and hospitable people may, either by factious proceedings or coercive measures, be induced to forfeit that allegiance to the British Crown, which it is their interest, their honour, and their duty, to preserve inviolate.

I leave this chapter as it stood in January, 1836, as it demonstrates the unhappy fulfilment of my predictions. It is to be hoped that the eyes of Government are now opened to the necessity of supporting and spreading the British interests in Lower Canada. The Constitution of that country is now in abeyance; when another is granted, let Mr. Pitt's fatal error of a democratic assembly, without an hereditary Aristocracy for its balance, be avoided; and let every justifiable means be used for the introduction of British settlers into the Province, and for converting the landed tenures from feudalism into free and common soccage rights. If such measures be pursued, Canada will rise higher than ever in all the advantages of social life.



LOWER CANADA.

APPENDIX.

BRITISH AMERICAN LAND COMPANY.

IT has ever been my anxious desire to witness the formation of Companies in England in connection with our Colonies: for by this means not only are the beneficial effects of British skill and capital felt in the distant parts of the empire, but a closer tie is drawn between the mother-country and her settlements, by means of an influential body of gentlemen resident in London.

These general remarks, are, however, peculiarly applicable to the *British American Land Company*: the site of whose operations is Lower Canada, and on the very frontier of our American neighbours, where it is peculiarly desirable to possess a body of intelligent and loyal British subjects, as a barrier to the designs of some American republicans.

This Company has now been in operation for several years; it has expended £200,000, and been mainly instrumental in cherishing the British feeling which solely enabled Sir John Colborne to subdue the revolted French-Canadians; yet has every thing been done to injure, and to destroy, if possible, the very existence of so valuable an institution.

The cause of M. Papineau's hostility in Canada, and of Mr. Roebuck's here, must now be apparent to the dullest understanding; and I hold, that Ministers are now, at least, bound to make some reparation for the past treatment of men, whose time, wealth, and talents have been devoted to the *true* welfare of Canada, and the establishing of her connection with the mother-country.

I have in the Second Chapter alluded to this Company, and now proceed to subjoin the following facts relative to it, premising that it offers the greatest inducements for men of small capital, and of industry, and talent, to form an independence for

themselves, and to become useful and honourable citizens of this oceanic empire.

If Government have not hitherto fully appreciated the operations of the British American Land Company, it is to be hoped they are now sufficiently acquainted with them, and by extending their patronizing and fostering hand to this Company, we shall soon see the eastern townships of Lower Canada adding to its loyal population by emigration, and becoming equally the main bulwark against the ambitious and desolating proceedings of a few French visionaries and any threatened incursion of American aggrandizers.

The Eastern Townships of Lower Canada comprise a beautiful and fertile tract of country, lying inland between Quebec and Montreal, on the south side of the River St. Lawrence, between 45 deg. 46½ min. North lat. and 71 deg. 73 min. West long. This district, containing from five to six millions of acres, is divided into eight counties, and about 100 townships; it enjoys very important advantages in its geographical position, being of easy access from Quebec, Montreal, Three Rivers, and Port St. Francis, the shipping ports and great markets of the Canadas on the one side; and from New York up the Hudson River, and through Lake Champlain, as well as from Boston, and other parts of the United States of America on the other. The British American Land Company have for sale lands in every part of this section of Canada, but they are principally situated in the counties of Drummond, Stanstead, Shefford, and Sherbrooke. The price of these lands varies according to their situation, quality, and advantages; the terms of payment being a deposit of one-fourth or one-fifth of the purchase-money, according to circumstances, on taking possession, the remainder payable by five equal annual instalments, bearing the legal interest of the province. This arrangement enables the industrious settler to realize the greater part of the remaining price from the produce of his farm.

The lands of the company comprise improved farms, wild or uncleared land, and building lots, in the various towns and villages.—The improved farms are of various extent, with cleared fields, orchards, houses, and barns. The quantity of land cleared is varying. The average price of these properties, is, at

present, from ten to twelve dollars per acre, (the dollar is worth 4s. 2d. sterling); the soil is of excellent quality, and they are highly eligible for parties with some capital, who are desirous of settling upon lands already under cultivation, with buildings attached. Immediate possession can be given, and in the event of growing crops they can be made over to a purchaser on a fair and reasonable valuation.

The uncleared land is laid out in lots of from 50 to 200 acres, to meet the views and resources of all classes of settlers, and at present varies in price from one and a half to two and a half dollars (from 6s. 3d. to 10s. 5d. sterling) the acre, according to the situation, quality, the soil, &c. The Company is also willing to dispose of tracts of uncleared land to a society of individuals who might wish to form a settlement of their own immediate friends or countrymen.

The largest block of uncleared land in the possession of the Company is the St. Francis territory, in the county of Sherbrooke, containing about 600,000 acres.

The lands of the St. Francis territory slope with greater or less declination in all directions from an elevated centre to the valleys which contain the St. Francis, the Salmon, and other rivers, and to the shore of Lake Megantic. They possess a soil of strong grey, or rich brown loam, on a substratum of slate, which is very fertile, and well adapted for all the purposes of agriculture. The forests, which are dense, lofty, and valuable, are principally of hard woods, designating a fertile soil, particularly maple (from the sap of which sugar is extracted), black birch (from which molasses and vinegar are made,) elm, ash, beech, basswood, and butternut, with a sprinkling of spruce, pine, and cedar, valuable for buildings and fences. The more elevated parts of this territory are suited for a mixed farm of arable and grass land, with orchards, the safest kind of farm for the industrious man with small capital. The lands descending to the Salmon River are arable and meadow. Turning from the west towards the north, the land is found of a more level, or gently undulating surface, and, except in a few places of small extent, the whole is calculated to become a rich grain or a grazing country, and well suited to realise a valuable return to the labour

of the industrious settler. This block of land is throughout supplied with innumerable springs, brooks, and rivulets of the purest water, not forming stagnant pools, but pursuing their course in rapid streams, and affording in their occasional falls numerous sites, and great water power for mill machinery.

The lands on the Salmon river are peculiarly fitted for settlement; their aspect is inviting, and they possess all the softness of a cultivated country. For about ten miles this river meanders through a level district, clothed with hard maple, mixed with pine spruce; and so rich is its soil, and pleasing to the eye, that it has obtained the name of "The Meadows." The Company have this year established a settlement on its banks in the immediate vicinity of the Great Falls. This settlement is called "Victoria," and already contains 300 families, principally agricultural labourers from the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Hampshire, who express themselves highly pleased with the country, and the prospect before them of realising a comfortable independence.

"Victoria" is about thirty miles from the town of Sherbrooke, passing through Cookshire in the townships of Eaton and Lennoxville. Eighteen miles of this road was opened last spring, and, from the influx of emigrants to the eastern townships during the season, it was so far completed by the close of the summer, as to offer an unbroken and good communication.

The building lots the Company have on sale are situated in the town plots of Sherbrooke and Port St. Francis. Those at Sherbrooke are laid out in half-acre lots, and those at Port St. Francis 110 feet by 45 feet; the present price of the former is 50*l.*, and of the latter from 20*l.* to 25*l.* Halifax currency, payable by a deposit of one-half, and the remainder at the expiration of one year, with interest.

The town of Sherbrooke, where the Company's principal establishment is fixed, is the capital of the eastern townships, beautifully situated on the River Magog, at its junction with the St. Francis, and within 100 miles distance from the cities of Quebec and Montreal, the grand shipping ports of the province. It contains several well-built houses, mostly of brick; three places of worship, viz. Episcopalian, Dissenting, and Roman Catholic; the Court-house and Gaol of the District; the County

Register Office ; a classical academy, a commodious inn, and a printing-office, at which a weekly newspaper, "The Sherbrooke Gazette," is published. Grist and saw-mills, belonging to the Company, as also a woollen factory, have been for some time in operation ; the latter offers to an intelligent and active manufacturer, with small capital, a very favourable opening for its investment, and the exertion of his energies in the making of coarse strong articles, similar to some manufactured in Yorkshire and Westmoreland. The water power is applicable to mills and machinery to almost any extent.

Being the seat of the government of the district, where the courts of law are held, and where other public business is transacted, Sherbrooke is a place of general resort from the neighbouring country, which, to the north towards Melbourne, and to the south, towards Compton, is thickly settled, and includes a large society of highly respectable families from Great Britain. Besides these advantages, it is situated in the centre of a rich and extensive territory, combining great agricultural and grazing capabilities. An annual cattle show is established, at which are exhibited beasts which would not disgrace an English breeder.

Port St. Francis, belonging to the British American Land Company, is the grand entrance of the roads into the townships, and is also the port of export for their produce ; it is situated on the River St. Lawrence, at the entrance to lake St. Peter, half way between Quebec and Montreal. The company have erected a substantial and convenient wharf, running 500 feet into the river, with 15 feet at low water mark, sufficient to admit of the largest class vessels navigating above Quebec to moor alongside. The steam-boats that ply between Quebec and Montreal stop here daily to take in a supply of fuel. Temporary lodgings, a store-house, and other requisite buildings have been erected, also provision stores have been opened, as well as an inn, where good accommodation can be procured, and the means of conveyance provided to Sherbrooke at reasonable charges. The present distance to Sherbrooke is 85 miles, and the road good, passing through Drummondville and Melbourne ; but by a new road now making through the township of Kingsey to Richmond, the distance will be reduced to 72 miles. The country,

after passing Drummondville, assumes a varied and picturesque appearance, and is thickly settled, many of the inhabitants being of the first respectability. Three or four persons may be conveyed in a cart or light waggon, from Port St. Francis to Melbourne, by the present route, a distance of 63 miles, for 22s. 6d., exclusive of expenses on the road, which are 1s. for each meal, and about 9d. for beds. To Sherbrooke and its vicinity the charge is 30s.

A four-horse stage runs from Port St. Francis to Sherbrooke every day except Sunday, starting at four in the morning, and reaching Sherbrooke about nine in the evening, the fare being 10d. a league, or a little more than 3d. a mile. Good inns are to be met with along the road, and in every village in the townships. In the best inns the highest charge per week for board and lodging is 15s. for adults, and half that price for children under fourteen years of age. Persons proceeding to the Townships with the view of examining the country had better leave the stage at Melbourne, and travel from thence to Sherbrooke, on foot or horseback, visiting the different farms for sale on their route. The stage runs between Sherbrooke and Stanstead twice a week, meeting that from Burlington and Boston.

Besides the road from Port St. Francis there is a direct road from Montreal to Sherbrooke, which, after crossing the River St. Lawrence at Longueuil, proceeds to Chambly, and from thence passes through the townships of Granby, Shefford, Stukely, and Orford; the distance is 94 miles, and the road good throughout. There is also a road from William Henry (or Sorel), which joins the St. Francis road at Drummondville, as well as one from Quebec, through Inverness, Ireland, Wolfstown, Weedon, and Dudswell. This communication is not so good as the others, being, in many parts, where the country is unsettled, in a very unfinished state. From Sherbrooke through the township of Dudswell it has lately been completed by the Company, and it is in contemplation to continue the repairs from thence the remainder of the distance.

By the agreement between her Majesty's Government and the Company, one half of their purchase-money is to be expended under the direction of the Company in public works and im-

provements, such as high roads, bridges, canals, school-houses, market-houses, churches, and parsonage houses. This is an extremely important arrangement, and must prove highly beneficial to settlers, as it assures to them the improvement and advancement of this district. The formation of roads and other easy communications are the great wants of a new country; and the application of capital on works of this nature, which are generally beyond the means of private individuals, is, in this case, most advantageously provided for the settlement of the Company's lands. The expenditure of the large sum above mentioned, has already furnished considerable employment to honest and industrious labourers immediately on arrival, at the following rate of wages; ordinary labourers receive from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* a day; and carpenters, joiners, bricklayers, plasterers, blacksmiths, &c. from 5*s.* to 6*s.* exclusive of board, or an extra allowance in lieu thereof. The wives and daughters of emigrants will readily find employment amongst the farmers, and those who have spinning-wheels will do well not to forget them; but for labourers generally or mechanics, it is recommended to accept of yearly service, for the first twelve months, at much less wages, in order to secure subsistence during the winter, and to make themselves acquainted with the customs and habits of the country. The rate of wages for agricultural and other servants hired by the year, varies with board, from 18*l.* to 24*l.*; and for those engaged for the summer only, from 40*s.* to 50*s.* a month; female servants get from 10*s.* to 15*s.* a month.

The eastern townships have already been described as well timbered with hard woods; these are valuable to the settler in the manufacture of pot or pearl ash, or black salts. Asheries are scattered throughout the country, at which the farmers find a ready market for the hardwood ashes of their clearing, when they have not the means themselves of going on further with the manufacture. The sugar made from the maple is another valuable production which the forest in its wild state yields to the farmer; it needs but little skill, and is made at a season when other operations of husbandry are not pursued.

The game consists of moose and other deer, hares, partridges, wild pigeons, ducks, and various species of water fowl. The

lakes, rivers, and rivulets abound in salmon, salmon trout, black bass, pike, pickerel, and maskinongé. Neither rattle snakes nor other venomous reptiles are found in the country.

The undulating nature of the ground, and the facility of irrigation from the numerous streams of running water, peculiarly qualify the eastern townships for a grazing country, in which respect its superiority over other parts of Canada and the United States is distinctly established. The alluvial soils are the best grass lands; timothy grass, and red and white clover are indigenous to the soil, and grow in luxuriant abundance; from two to three tons of hay to the acre are frequently produced, which enables the farmer, with the aid of his potatoe and turnip crops, to provide ample food for his stock during the winter: two tons of hay being sufficient for a horse, the same quantity for a cow giving milk, and about five tons for a yoke of oxen.

The soil of the eastern townships, as before stated, is generally good, comprising different combinations of sands, light and heavy loams, and clay; the latter is well adapted for making bricks, the price being about 20s. a thousand. Limestone also abounds.

Indian corn is very productive on the warm sandy loams of the district, which also bear excellent crops of barley, oats, and potatoes. Wheat crops vary from twenty to thirty bushels the acre, on new lands, the seed being harrowed in among the stumps. A better system of farming, would, no doubt, greatly increase this quantity, as in Compton, on a well-cultivated farm, forty bushels have been produced. Potatoes are remarkably fine, and will yield from 300 to 400 bushels the acre; they are much used with mangel wurzel, and turnips in winter keep for stock of all kinds, and are effectually preserved from the frost by being kept in cellars or deep pits dug for the purpose.

The counties of Shefford, Stanstead, and Sherbrooke enjoy a climate rather milder than that which prevails at Montreal, where the spring is considerably earlier than at Quebec, and the commencement of winter, in proportion later. The air is pure and dry, and the climate is well adapted to the constitution of natives of the mother country, being less fluctuating and more healthy than the Upper Province, or the Western States of

America ; lake fever and ague are unknown in the eastern townships ; and it is a remarkable fact, that in 1832 and 1834, when cholera raged with such virulence in Canada and the United States, *not a single case occurred in the eastern townships*. The winter, although cold, is pleasant, the sky is then bright and clear, and free from vapour ; the cold is exhilarating, and creates no personal inconvenience, as, from the dryness of the atmosphere, it is less sensibly felt than in Great Britain. The winter roads are much better than in the state of New York or Upper Canada ; sleighs traversing the country in all directions without any impediment ; most descriptions of produce are then carried to the markets of Quebec and Montreal, and a horse can draw a ton weight on a sleigh over the snow, with as much ease as half that burden on a wheeled vehicle over a common road. The farmer, also, during this season, looks to his stock, thrashes his grain, dresses flax, does his marketing, gets out his fencing timber, firewood, &c. About the first of March the sugar season commences, and continues from three to four weeks, and when this is over, his land is ready to be worked.

The operations of husbandry commence early in April, and this month and that of May form the spring of the eastern townships ; June, July, and August constitute the summer ; the productions of the earth arriving at maturity with a rapidity unknown on this side of the Atlantic ; September and October may be considered the autumn ; the latter part of October and the beginning of November being employed in preparing the land for the ensuing spring.

Among the advantages which may be held out to settlers in the eastern townships, are the extreme healthiness of the country : its great superiority as a grazing district, and easy access from the cities of Quebec and Montreal ; also, that, compared with other parts of Canada and the United States, the continuous extent of backwoods is inconsiderable, cultivated tracts, or small settlements being situated at no great distance from each other.

The lands in this section of Canada are held in free and common soccage, the titles being derived from the crown. There are also register offices for the recording of all deeds relating to

real property, so that purchasers may learn at once whether there be any, and what incumbrance on the estate. A district judge, resident at the town of Sherbrooke, has jurisdiction in personal matters to the extent of 20*l.*, and two Circuit Courts are also held at the same place, by the judges of the Court of Queen's Bench, in each year. There are also Courts of Quarter Sessions, and commissioners for the trial of small causes in different parts of the country. The language as well as the manners and customs are English, and the inhabitants are almost exclusively Protestant.

There are neither tithes nor taxes, except a highway rate of six shillings for every 100 acres of land, the province having a sufficient revenue from the importation duties levied at Quebec and Montreal.

The Rates of Wages per Day for Labourers and Mechanics throughout the Eastern Townships, are as under:—

Carpenters for framing buildings, bridges, and for general rough work, are paid about 5*s.* Joiners and superior workmen, 5*s.* to 6*s.* 3*d.* Blacksmiths meet with plenty of employment at about the same wages for ordinary country workmen and shoers, but smiths, who understand mill work, earn 5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* Masons and stone-cutters are employed in the districts where stone is used for building, and are paid from 4*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.* Bricklayers meet with greater encouragement, as brick is more generally used than stone; a bricklayer, if a good workman, is paid 5*s.* to 6*s.* 3*d.* Plasterers the same. Sawyers do not find employment, mills being made to do all their work. Millwrights who understand their business are amply encouraged, their wages being as high in some cases, as 15*s.* per day; they commonly receive 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* Cabinet makers find employment to a certain extent, but there is not a great demand for the finer kinds of furniture, ordinary workmen are principally employed, and receive from 5*s.* to 6*s.* 3*d.* Shoemakers are not commonly paid by the day, but receive very good prices for their work. Tailors the same. Farm servants, or ordinary labourers, receive according to their capability of performing the general work of the country, from 20*l.* to 35*l.* for the year, and board, when engaged for that period, otherwise, 2*s.* 6*d.* But good ploughmen, and men who have acquired the art of using the axe, waggoners, &c. receive higher wages, and in harvest time, every man may find employment at from 4*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.*

Prices of Grain and Provisions.

Wheat is at present selling at about 5*s.* to 5*s.* 3*d.* per bushel; the crop has been very good the past season, and the quality excellent. Barley is not cultivated to a considerable extent; the price is about 2*s.* 6*d.* per bushel. Oats are sold at 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per bushel. Pease 3*s.* per bushel. Hay is produced in great quantities both in natural and artificial meadows and uplands. It is usually applied to the wintering and fattening of cattle, which are pastured during the summer, and its price varies from 20*s.* to 30*s.* and 40*s.* per ton, according to situation. Flax seed is cultivated in small quantities, and sells for about 5*s.* to 6*s.* per bushel. Clover seed is also partially raised, and is worth from 70*s.* to 84*s.* per cwt., as well as Timothy and Hird's grass seed, which are worth from 6*s.* to 9*s.* per bushel. Turnips are sometimes sown but not generally, the principal root crop being potatoes, which yield large returns; their price varies from 10*d.* to 2*s.* per bushel. Beef and mutton 3*d.*, pork 4*d.* per lb. Geese, turkeys, and fowls abundant. Tea 2*s.* 6*d.* and sugar 4*d.* per lb. Implements of husbandry and tools, such as axes, chains, &c. are to be had in Lower Canada, on better terms than those of English manufacture, and are more suitable for the country's use.

The advantages derivable from this important, and it may be added, national Company, are fully illustrated in the following extracts of Letters recently received from Canada.

“ Eastern Township, Sept. 23, 1837.

“ After visiting almost all the settlements in the Upper Province, and the Western States of America, I have pitched my tent in the Eastern Townships, within an hour's drive of Sherbrooke. In my opinion, this is by far the most beautiful and picturesque portion of the Canadas: the soil in many parts quite equal to that of the London district, and as a grazing country it is the finest I ever beheld. I should think the grass lands about Compton capable of fattening five sheep to the acre, without other food.

“ Most of the farmers here are turning their attention to the rearing of stock—the easy access to the markets of Quebec and Montreal pointing it out as the most profitable pursuit. The cattle generally are pretty good, but the sheep would be all the better for the importation of some good Southdowns or Lincolnshires from the old country.

“ Sherbrooke is only 86 miles, by as good a road as any cross road in England, from Port St. Francis on the river St. Lawrence; and the British American Land Company, who have done wonders in bringing forward this beautiful district, have just completed a new cut, which reduces the distance to 72. There is a four-horse stage daily from Sherbrooke to Port St. Francis, accomplishing the journey by the old road in 14 or 15 hours, and with your own horse you may drive down in two days, sleep-

ing at Shipton, where there is a very comfortable inn. We have also a stage three times a week to Burlington, on Lake Champlain, through Stanstead.

"There are several very pleasant families residing in this neighbourhood, and I have every prospect of becoming far more independent than I ever expected to be."

Extract of a Letter from an Officer who has settled near Compton, in the Eastern Townships of Lower Canada, dated Nov. 10, 1837.

"I shall ever feel much indebted to you as the entire cause of my coming to this part of the world. I travelled over a great deal of country in the States, New Brunswick, &c., and some portion of this Province, and at last fixed myself here.

"The land is most superior. I purpose sending you a specimen of its fertility and strength, if I can get an opportunity, in the produce of an oat-seed, which yielded 12,000 and upwards! thirteen straws nearly an inch in circumference, and six feet four inches in height. My crops have been magnificent; superior to any of my neighbours. My wheat most luxuriant. Barley and oats splendid.

"The land in a large part of this Township is the very best in the Province; three yieldings of ears of wheat taken from the ground after the produce was drawn were 69, 66, 64; and some that I did not count measured between eight and nine inches, and larger seeds than any of the English labourers in my employ had ever seen. I mention this to satisfy you of the quality of my land."

Extracts of Letters from a Gentleman, resident at Sherbrooke, in the Eastern Townships of Lower Canada, dated August 26, 1837.

"I have just returned from Montreal, by Chambly and the new road made by the British American Land Company through Stukeley and Orford. I was delighted with the balmy air, and beautiful scenery I passed through; fertile, undulated ground still under the maple and oak—pretty lakes and waters without a name—and thousands of acres waiting to pour their riches into the lap of human industry.

"Sherbrooke is pleasantly situated at the confluence of the St. Francis and Magog rivers. It is destined to become a thriving capital; and from the unparalleled water-power of the Magog must be the focus of our manufacturing industry and commercial enterprise.

"The Townships generally seem fertile; the water is excellent, and the undulations occasion, I think, a more refreshing, healthful state of the

atmosphere, besides facilitating drainage, where that may be necessary; and when the country is fully settled and improved, it will be decidedly one of the most picturesque beautiful districts in the world; here and there you, no doubt, meet a precipitous bank, or a rocky point, that will still be left to enjoy their rich green shelter, after the country shall have become studded with the mansions of the rich, and the comfortable homesteads of the yeomen farmers; but, in general, the soil is quite good to the top of the hills or swellings, and they are not so high or so precipitous as not easily to yield to the plough. If my poor Scotch countrymen had been first introduced to the Eastern Townships they never would have passed in such shoals to the swampy plains of the far West.

"My tour through the United States and Upper Canada has been very extensive,—visiting Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Michigan,—overland from Sandwich, through the Western and London districts, &c. to Toronto, Kingston, Brockville, and Perth; and I have the real satisfaction to find that I am engaged for the very district, which I can most conscientiously recommend to the preference of British settlers."

Dated November 14, 1837.

"A brother of one of the settlers at Victoria, who has a farm in the Upper Province, came last week to induce him to return with him; but he thanked him, and would abide where he was: he saw the settlement of Victoria thriving around him, and he would not relinquish it—and he was right. The soil is fertile, admirably adapted for grazing as well as husbandry. They are in an undulated picturesque country, not more than 400 feet above the level of the sea, between 45 and 46 degrees of north latitude, about as far south as the north side of Spain—the weather beautiful—climate healthy,—and they are safe beyond even the sound of discord. I was told by a delicate man two days ago, that he was much less liable in this country to the frequent bad coughs and colds that injured his constitution in Great Britain. Where then can an industrious wise man prefer to settle himself and his posterity? We have frost to brace our nerves, as well as warmth to mature our crops.

"Last evening I walked out on the other side of the St. Francis: the sky and scenery were beautiful in the extreme. No sooner had the bright setting sun tinged the Orford hills with gold, than the moon began to illumine the light clouds on the opposite side.

"I like the Sherbrooke people much. I have scarcely ever seen a drunken man; and all around there is as extensive and genteel society within reach as in any country part of England—colonels, captains, baronets' sons, and rich men. In Montreal they are distracted with politics. In Quebec they have already two inches of snow, while in the Eastern Townships we have neither snow nor politics. I wish you could send 100,000 people over to enjoy them with us.

“ Good tradesmen will find the Eastern Townships a capital country for health, and work, and food ; for instance, we have only one tailor and one shoemaker in Sherbrooke, and they charge double what they ought ; there should be at least three of each. One lame shoemaker at Victoria works his lot on his stock better than any of them, and has a large clearing around him.

“ An experienced merchant and farmer of my acquaintance affirms, that the ashes and first crop of 50 acres should more than clear a farm of 200 acres, even at £1. per acre of price ; and if so, the country in this district should soon be taken up and settled, as our best lands in a wild state are to be had for 10*d*. He insists, that with any thing like industry and management, there is no trade to compare with clearing and farming.

	£.	s.	d.
“ Suppose 200 acres of land to cost £1. per acre	200	0	0
Clearing, chopping, and burning 50 acres	125	0	0
Manufacturing and carrying 13 tons of ashes from the			
50 acres, at £6. per acre	78	0	0
Seed, harrowing, and harvesting the 50 acres	50	0	0
Total expense of buying the farm and the first year's work...	478	0	0
Take the wheat crop at the low average of 20			
bushels per acre, and at the price of a			
dollar per bushel,—for the 50 acres.....	250	0	0
13 tons of ashes produced from the 50 acres,			
at £25. per ton	325	0	0
		575	0 0
Showing a reversion of	97	0	0
to buy oxen, sustain the family, or build a house on the freehold.			

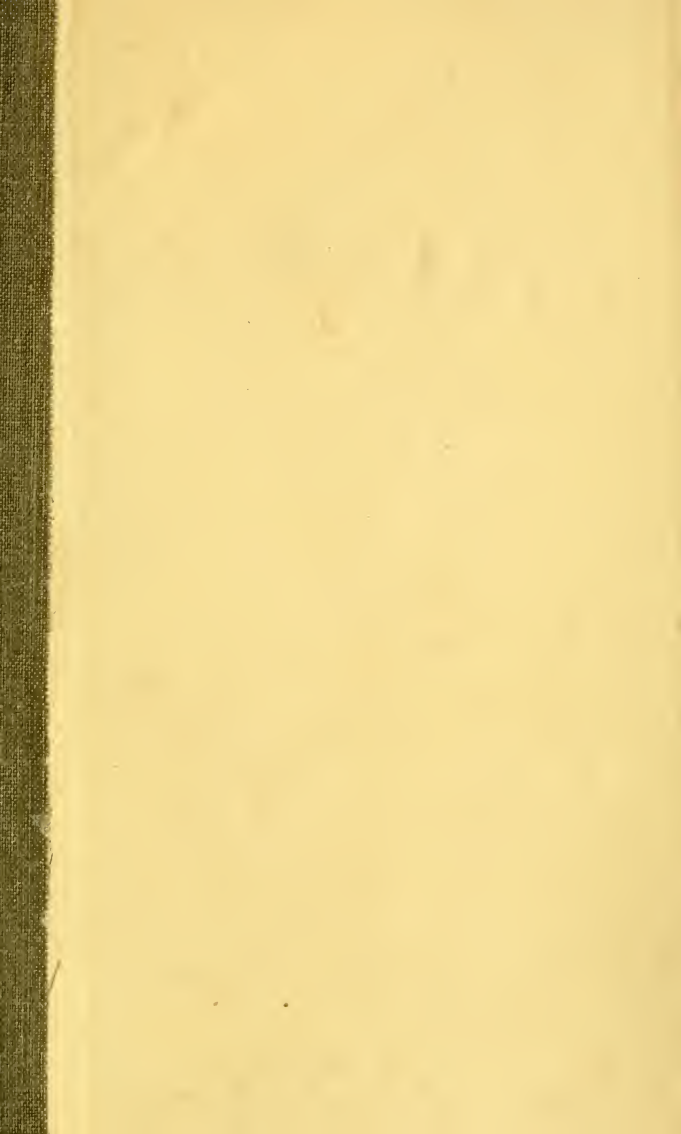
“ Make this generally known in the mother country, and surely labouring people would not much longer pine and half starve there, with such a prospect as this before them.”

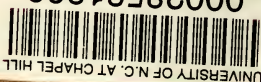
THE END.

*Q. The distance from Montreal to Sherbrooke has been
the New Road made by the B.A. Land Comp^y to
and Orford.*

74,0

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UNIVERSITY OF N.C. AT CHAPEL HILL

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